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ART. I. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, for the Year 1808. Part I. 4to. 9s. 6d. sewed. Nicol and Son.

IT seems very properly to have been ordered that the most important paper in this volume should occupy the first place in its pages. We shall follow, in our report, our usual custom of classing the memoirs, (which is not adopted in the work itself,) but shall still preserve to the essay in question the precedence which is so justly its due.

MEDICINE, CHEMISTRY, *and* NATURAL HISTORY.

The Bakerian Lecture, on some new Phenomena of Chemical Changes produced by Electricity, particularly the Decomposition of the fixed Alkalies, and the Exhibition of the new Substances which constitute their Bases; and on the General Nature of Alkaline Bodies. *By* Humphrey Davy, *Esq. Sec. R. S. &c.*—In the paper which Mr. Davy read to the Society on the chemical agency of electricity, (of which we gave an account in our LIVth volume, p. 1.) he was led to conclude by a most ingenious train of reasoning, that, by means of the electric fluid, we might be enabled to effect the decomposition of some bodies which had hitherto been regarded as simple substances; and his prediction has been most remarkably verified. We have now before us the history of one of the most brilliant discoveries of modern times, viz. the decomposition of the two fixed alkalies; which, contrary to the hypothesis that has been adopted respecting their nature, are found to consist of a peculiar metallic base, united to a large quantity of oxygen. The alkalies had previously, by Mr. Davy and by others, been subjected to the action of the Galvanic apparatus: but, in consequence of their being employed in a state of solution, the water alone had been affected. The method, in which the decomposition was at length accomplished, we shall describe in the words of the discoverer:

'Though potash, perfectly dried by ignition, is a nonconductor, yet it is rendered a conductor, by a very slight addition of moisture, which does not perceptibly destroy its aggregation; and in this state it readily fuses and decomposes by strong electrical powers.

'A small piece of pure potash, which had been exposed for a few seconds to the atmosphere, so as to give conducting power to the surface, was placed upon an insulated disc of platina, connected with the negative side of the battery of the power of 250 of 6 and 4, in a state of intense activity; and a platina wire, communicating with the positive side, was brought in contact with the upper surface of the alkali. The whole apparatus was in the open atmosphere.

'Under these circumstances a vivid action was soon observed to take place. The potash began to fuse at both its points of electrization. There was a violent effervescence at the upper surface; at the lower, or negative surface, there was no liberation of elastic fluid; but small globules having a high metallic lustre, and being precisely similar in visible characters to quicksilver, appeared, some of which burnt with explosion and bright flame, as soon as they were formed, and others remained, and were merely tarnished, and finally covered by a white film which formed on their surfaces.

'These globules, numerous experiments soon shewed to be the substance I was in search of, and a peculiar inflammable principle the basis of potash. I found that the platina was in no way connected with the result, except as the medium for exhibiting the electrical powers of decomposition: and a substance of the same kind was produced when pieces of copper, silver, gold, plumbago, or even charcoal were employed for compleating the circuit.'

The decomposition of soda was afterward effected by the same means, though with more difficulty; and a metal was obtained in some degree different from that which forms the base of potash. To these new bodies, Mr. Davy has given the names of *potasium* and *sodium*. The theory of this decomposition is the one which was developed in the Professor's former paper; and it is founded on the principle that substances similarly electrified will repel or separate from each other, while those in different states of electricity will be attracted. In their natural condition, oxygen is negative and combustible substances are positive, and hence they are disposed to enter into close union: but when a body consisting of oxygen and a metallic base forms a part of the electric circuit, the oxygen, becoming positively electrified, loses its affinity for the base, while this latter is attracted by the negative wire, and is found there in an uncombined state.

After having thus succeeded in solving the great problem respecting the composition of the fixed alkalies, Mr. Davy entered on a minute course of experiments to determine the nature of these new metallic bodies. Potasium, at the usual temperature of the atmosphere, has the appearance of bright

globules, very similar to those of mercury: when cooled to the freezing point, it becomes solid, brittle, and crystalline. Its affinity for oxygen is so powerful, that it immediately abstracts the latter from the atmosphere, or from any fluid which contains it; and the only method, by which it can be preserved in the metallic form, is by keeping it immersed in distilled naphtha. Potasium differs considerably from all other metals with respect to its specific gravity, which is less than that of any fluid with which we are acquainted: it is estimated at not more than .6. We have an account of its affections with water, oils, metallic oxids, and several other bodies; in all which cases it quickly lost its metallic appearance, absorbed oxygen, and was converted into potash. The base of soda is less fusible than the potasium, so as to be malleable at the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere: though heavier than the base of potash, it is still lighter than water; its specific gravity appearing to be .9348. The two metals possess nearly the same properties, and were influenced nearly in a similar manner by the different re-agents to which they were exposed. Sodium, however, possesses a smaller affinity for oxygen, and therefore its effects are in general less considerable. Mr. Davy attempted to ascertain the quantities of the ingredients which enter into the composition of potash and soda; and the former he found to consist of 86.1 parts of the base to 13.9 of oxygen, and the soda, of 80 parts of the metal to 20 of oxygen.

The paper concludes with some experiments performed on ammoniac, in order to discover whether this substance, like the fixed alkalies, contains oxygen. Professor Davy determines in the affirmative, and relates a number of minute processes which he instituted for the purpose of ascertaining the point, and which led him to form his conclusion. On the whole, however, we confess that the presence of oxygen in the volatile alkali does not appear to us quite so decisive as in potash and soda.

On the Structure and Uses of the Spleen. *By* Everard Home, *Esq. F.R.S.—Farther Experiments on the Spleen*, by the same.—In the course of Mr. Home's investigations concerning the structure and functions of the stomach, he was led to conjecture that, when a larger quantity of fluid is taken into it than is necessary for the purpose of digestion, a part of the fluid does not pass the pylorus, but is carried off by some other channel. He attempted to prove this point by experiment; and for this purpose, after having secured the pylorus of a dog by a ligature, he injected into its stomach a measured quantity of the infusion of indigo. After some time, the

animal was killed; and, on collecting the fluid still contained in the stomach, together with some that had been vomited, they were found to be considerably less than the quantity which had been given. The absorbents of the stomach did not exhibit any marks of the infusion, as if they had been the agents in removing the superfluous matter; and no way for its escape appeared so probable as by means of the spleen. On examining this viscus, it was found to be turgid; and, when cut, it seemed to consist of a number of cells filled with an aqueous fluid.—Another experiment of a similar kind was tried, in which the fluid injected into the stomach was impregnated with rhubarb, in the expectation that the colouring matter of this substance might be detected in the spleen. The result was that the rhubarb was discovered in the spleen and in the urine, but it could not be observed in the liver: from which Mr. Home infers that it must have passed directly from the stomach to the spleen, without previously passing along the usual course of the absorbent system.

Some experiments were afterward made on asses, in which the parts were left in their natural state before death; and in these cases it was found that the blood of the splenic vein exhibited more distinct traces of rhubarb, than blood taken from other parts of the body. This circumstance did not occur when the rhubarb was given in the solid state, in which case it was detected in the urine only. Mr. Home's conclusions are that the spleen consists of a congeries of elastic cells; and that, when large quantities of fluid are taken into the stomach, 'they are not wholly carried out of it by the common absorbents of the stomach, or the canal of the intestines, but are partly conveyed though the medium of the spleen into the circulation of the liver.' The vessels by which this communication is formed have not yet been discovered.

We think that Mr. Home's hypothesis is plausible, but the experiments are not at present sufficiently precise to enable us to give it our unqualified assent.

On the Composition of the compound Sulphuret from Huel Boys, and an Account of its Crystals. *By* James Smithson, *Esq. F. R. S.*—Mr. Smithson's valuable experiments on the analysis of the different species of calamine led him to adopt an hypothesis respecting the manner in which all bodies unite to each other. He supposes that the proximate elements are never combined in remote relations to each other, but that they will always be found fractions of the compound with very low denominators. Proceeding on this idea, he offers some observations on an analysis which was performed by Mr.

Hatchett, of a compound sulphuret of lead, copper, and antimony: which, he thinks, is not formed by the direct union of the four substances, but by a previous combination taking place, first of the metals with sulphur, and afterward of the sulphuret of lead with the compound of the other two sulphurets; so that the substance may be considered as a series of binary combinations, the constituents of which are united in a regular proportion to each other, so as to form sexagesimal fractions of the whole.

On Oxalic Acid. By Thomas Thomson, *M.D. F.R.S. Ed.*— The object of this paper is to ascertain the composition of the oxalic acid and of its salts, in a more minute manner than has hitherto been done; and Dr. Thomson gives a circumstantial detail of a series of experiments which he performed for this purpose. The paper is long, and rather tedious in the perusal, but it contains much valuable information; and we think that most of the author's results may be considered as fairly established. Without following him though the whole of his process, we shall advert to some of his most important conclusions.

The water which enters into the crystallization of the oxalic acid is estimated at 23 parts in the 100; the oxalate of lime, when entirely freed from water, consists of 62.5 acid, and 37.5 of the base, a proportion which differs from that of Bergmann, but which appears to be derived from more accurate data. Dr. T. observes that the super-oxalate of potash contains exactly twice as much acid as the neutral oxalate; and he finds that there are also two oxalates of strontian, in which the acid exists in constant proportions. By decomposing the oxalate of lime, and examining the products, the composition of the acid was determined to be different from that which was proposed by Fourcroy and Vauquelin, but which we apprehend must be more exact.—Dr. Thomson then inquires why oxalic acid possesses different properties from other compounds consisting of the same ingredients, such as tartaric acid, alcohol, &c.; and here he adopts the theory of chemical affinity which has been lately proposed by Mr. Dalton, and which certainly displays much genius and originality. We shall have occasion to enter on a more full consideration of this theory in our review of Mr. Dalton's own publication; and we shall at present only observe that Dr. T.'s experiments on the oxalic acid seem to countenance that part of the hypothesis, which supposes that elementary bodies always unite in determinate proportions.

Dr. Thomson's paper concludes by an analysis of sugar; and he makes its constituents very nearly those which had been de-

termined by Lavoisier, although the result was obtained by a different process.

On Super-acid and Sub-acid Salts. By W. H. Wollaston, *M.D. Sec. R.S.*—Mr. Dalton's hypothesis is brought forwards in this paper; and the principal object of the author is to shew that it accords with the facts which he has noticed, respecting the proportion of acid and base in those salts that are not neutralized. Mr. Dalton supposes that, in all chemical combinations, the primary elements of bodies unite atom by atom singly; and that, if either be in excess, this super-abundant quantity is equivalent to some multiple of the number of atoms. In confirmation of this opinion, Dr. Wollaston notices the composition of the super-oxalates of pot-ash and strontites, which Dr. Thomson found to include precisely double the quantity of acid that exists in the neutral compounds. Dr. W. has likewise observed that the sub-carbonate of potash contains exactly one half of the quantity of acid that is found in the perfect carbonate; and the same takes place with respect to the sub-carbonate of soda, and the super-sulphate of potash, which possesses just twice as much acid as the sulphate. A circumstance still more remarkably favourable to this doctrine is, that, by the addition of nitric acid to the super-oxalate of potash, it is converted into a salt, which retains exactly $\frac{1}{4}$ of its quantity of alkali, and which is appropriately named the quadroxalate of potash.

On the Inconvertibility of Bark into Alburnum. By T. A. Knight, *Esq., F.R.S.*—Still pursuing his researches into vegetable physiology, Mr. Knight proposes in this paper to shew, contrary to the opinion supported by Malpighi and Duhamel, and lately embraced by Mirbel, that bark when formed is not convertible into alburnum. In order to prove this point, he took portions of bark from off an apple and a crab, which differed from each other in colour and texture, and applied them closely to the bare wood of the contrary tree; *i. e.* the bark of the apple to the crab tree, and the bark of the crab to the apple tree. The pieces of bark adhered to their new situations respectively; and when after some time they were removed, alburnum was found to be generated under each of them, which, from its appearance, seemed to have proceeded not from the bark but from the wood. The author was led to draw a similar conclusion respecting the inconvertibility of bark into alburnum, from attentively watching the formation of alburnum in the oak tree; the particular structure which preceded its generation being never discernible in the bark. He also mentions the instance of some trees which possess a very similar kind of

alburnum

alburnum, although their barks are very unlike to each other.

Some Account of Cretinism. By H. Reeve, *M.D. of Norwich.*—The author of this paper having had an opportunity of examining the state of some of those unfortunate beings called Cretins, during a tour through Swisserland, was led to inquire how far the popular idea is correct which supposes some connection between cretinism and the enlargement of the throat termed goitres. He found that, although in many instances the diseases exist in combination, yet they often also exist singly. The affection of the throat, moreover, appears altogether a local complaint, whereas the other is accompanied by a state of total imbecility both of body and mind. The cause of cretinism is obscure: but Dr. Reeve imagines that it is produced by bad air, defective nutriment, and want of proper nursing; though these causes, which are not confined to Swisserland, do not produce the same state of the constitution in other places. We suspect that the affection is in some measure hereditary.

An Account of the Application of the Gas from Coal to œconomical Purposes. By Mr. W. Murdoch.—We have here a very interesting account of the writer's experience on the subject of the coal gas, and the economical advantages that may be derived from its adoption in those situations in which a constant necessity exists for a great body of light. The illumination produced in the manufactory of Messrs. Philips and Lee is equal to that which would ensue from the burning of 2500 mould candles:—1250 cubic feet of gas is consumed hourly;—and cannel coal is preferred, notwithstanding its greater expence, in consequence of the superior brilliancy of its flame. The total expence of lighting up the factory is 600l. per annum, whereas the cost of a sufficient number of candles would be 2000l., for the same number of hours. As it is now managed, no unpleasant smell attends this mode, and less risk of conflagration is incurred.—Mr. Murdoch acknowleges that the gas had been observed by others before his discovery of it: but he claims, and we believe with justice, the merit of being the first who thought of applying it to œconomical purposes.

Mathematics.

On a new Property of the Tangents of the three Angles of a plane Triangle. By Mr. William Garrard, *Quarter Master of Instruction at the Royal Naval Asylum at Greenwich.*

On a new Property of three Arches trisecting the Circumference of a Circle. By Nevil Maskelyne, *D.D. F.R.S. and Astronomer Royal.*

Royal.—We class these two short papers together, since we purpose to shew that the properties of the circle, which they announce, are obtained by an easy extension of the formula that expresses the tangent of the sum of two arcs in terms of the tangents of those arcs. Let A, B, C, be three arcs (rad.$=1$) and let π represent a semicircle, and m any number of the progression, 1, 2, 3, &c.

then if $A + B + C = m\pi$

$$\tan.(A+B) = \tan.(m\pi - C)$$

$$\text{or, } \frac{\tan. A + \tan. B}{1 - \tan. A \tan. B} = \frac{\tan. m\pi - \tan. C}{1 + \tan. m\pi. \tan. C}$$

now $\tan. m\pi = o$

$$\therefore \frac{\tan. A + \tan. B}{1 - \tan. A. \tan. B} = \frac{o - \tan. C}{1 + o. \tan. C} = -\tan. C$$

$$\therefore \tan. A + \tan. B + \tan. C = \tan. A. \tan. B. \tan. C.$$

which formula expresses the property announced in both of these papers, but which is not restricted to the two values of m, 1 and 2.

R.W. See p 231.

Part II. of the Transactions for this year has just appeared.

ART. II. *Dialogues on various Subjects.* By the late William Gilpin, A.M. Prebendary of Salisbury, and Vicar of Boldre, in New Forrest. Published by his Trustees for the Benefit of his School at Boldre. 8vo. pp. 537. 9s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

OFTEN has it happened that the fame of an author has been depressed by posthumous publications: but we may venture safely to pronounce that no danger of that kind is to be apprehended on the present occasion. The dialogues before us, indeed, will rather elevate than depreciate Mr. Gilpin's reputation, since his piety and learning as a Clergyman, his sound judgment, his taste, and his liberal principles, are here eminently conspicuous; and so cordially do we approve the general tendency of the whole, that, if it were lawful to indulge our feelings in opposition to the decrees of Providence, we could wish that he had lived to furnish us with more productions of the same nature. In this exquisite sort of composition, he displays great ease and adroitness, and has most successfully followed his apparent prototype among our modern writers, the late Dr. Hurd, Bishop of Worcester. Though we cannot think that every subject which he has chosen is proper for familiar discourse, he has manifested a thorough knowlege of this species of writing in the choice of

of his interlocutors; introducing in the dialogue those allusions to their habits, opinions, and history, by which their character is so completely kept in view, and the appearance of reality is so much maintained, that not only the common reader but also the very author himself (like Cicero with respect to his Cato Major*) may be seduced to suppose that he peruses the account of a real conversation between the parties to whom it is assigned.

Following the steps of Bishop Hurd, Mr. Gilpin opens this volume with an exhibition of his sentiments on the manner of writing dialogue. An admiration of the antients has not so far blunted his penetration, as to hinder him from perceiving the defect of the Socratic dialogues; which, however they may be extolled as master-pieces, 'are sometimes found to be captious, uninteresting, and not convincing;' nor has the success of some illustrious moderns, copying the example of Lucian, by constructing *Dialogues of the Dead*, and laying the scene in the other world, induced Mr. G. to be partial to this kind of invention. Considering that the great beauty of dialogue-writing arises from the ease and probability with which the conversation is conducted, he objects to this fiction, which is *out of nature*; and he conceives that it is not altogether correct in a Christian writer, 'to bring good and bad people discoursing together in a future state, and discussing such points as we cannot suppose will be the subjects of conversation hereafter.'

Should some persons be ready to pronounce that the writer was rather too squeamish on this head, all must allow that his practice is preferable, in putting the subject to be discussed into the mouths of persons who may, without any violence to probability, be supposed to meet in this world, and bringing them easily together by natural incidents. Thus Archbishop Tenison and Lord Somers, without any violation of the truth of history and chronology, may be supposed to meet at Windsor, and hold a familiar dialogue; and Lord Treasurer Burleigh and Sir Philip Sidney may with equal probability be placed in company on a visit to Lord Pembroke at Wilton. We think with Mr. G. that Dr. Hurd is too nice when he insists on only bringing those characters to communicate in dialogue, who are on an equality; and when he proscribes the introduction of a Nobleman and his Chaplain as speakers: since the latter may be more than equal to the former in

* "*Genus hoc sermonum, positum in hominum veterum auctoritate, et eorum illustrium, plus nescio quo pacto videtur habere gravitatis. Itaque ipse mea legens, sic afficior interdum, ut Catonem, non me loqui existimem.*" De Amicit. c. 1.

learning

learning and good sense, though not in rank, and subjects may easily be imagined on which the Peer may solicit a free conversation with his chaplain. Several of the dialogues before us pass between a Baronet and a Curate: but, though we do not object to these dialogists being associated, the topics assigned to them are not always the most proper, as we shall hereafter instance. In naturally supporting his characters, in placing the subject in various lights, and in keeping the discussion alive, Mr. Gilpin has shewn so much felicity and dexterity, that the reader is never tired, but finds himself at once amused and instructed.

Fifteen dialogues, including the introductory one, are contained in this volume; the subjects of which may be arranged under the heads of theology, morals, belles lettres, and popular politics. Those which we term theological are intitled, On the Divinity and Atonement of Christ;—on the Evidences of Christianity, from Prophecy and Miracles;—on the Mischief of propagating Disputed Tenets in Religion;—Instructions to a Young Man intended for Holy Orders;—on the Difficulties incident to a Clerical Life, or the Character of a Clergyman, who made a Conscience of every thing;—on the Character of a Clergyman, who made a Conscience of nothing,—and on the Infliction of Divine Punishments, for the purposes of national Correction. In the first three, the speakers are Sir Charles Bennet and Mr. Willis, an old college acquaintance, whom the Baronet had the pleasure of finding in the situation of curate of his parish: but such persons do not appear well chosen for the examination of the first mentioned subject *; and it is rather singular to find such a discussion followed by a dialogue on the mischief of propagating disputed tenets in religion: since one of the most effectual modes of propagating them is that of making them the topic of familiar discourse. Besides, if a gentleman and a curate may hold a dialogue on the Divinity and Atonement of Christ, why may not other people? The Curate is made to say, "I wish that all those who hold heterodox opinions would keep them to themselves:" but, if he himself publicly dabbles in controversial divinity, he foments the very mischief which he deprecates. We pass, however, from these dialogues, to others of the same class which have greater merit.

The Instructions to a Young Man intended for Holy Orders display Mr. Gilpin's enlightened, pious, and liberal mind to the utmost advantage; and we strongly recommend them to

* Bishop Horsley and Dr. Priestley should have been the disputants.

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all young clergymen. The supposed interlocutors are the late venerable Dr. Wilson, bishop of Sodor and Man, and a Mr. Langton, a Lancashire gentleman; who, as a friend of the Bishop, consults him respecting a son who is intended for the Church. Here the good prelate is perfectly in character; and his lecture forms one of the best charges which can be given to a young clergyman, respecting his studies, conduct, and preaching. To Mr. Langton's inquiries concerning the books which he ought to put into his son's hands, the Bishop replies:

'There is one book, the new Testament, which you are well acquainted with, and which is the chief book to put into his hands. And when he has read his Testament well over, if you should ask me, what he should read next, I should answer, the Testament.—And if you should ask me, what after that? I should again answer, the Testament. In short, I would have him read his Testament over and over, till he is perfect master of it: till he can readily tell you, what our Saviour, or St. Paul, says, on this, or that subject: and if you begin any passage, can with promptness go on, at least with the sense of it. As all the instruction he will give, must come from this book, he should certainly make himself perfect master of it; and have it ready to draw out on all occasions. Of the old Testament, also, he should make himself perfect master. He who does not take up the full connection between them, sees neither Testament in its best point of light.'

The worthy prelate is very solicitous that the theological student should go to the fountain-head of his religion; and the next point which he urges is, 'that after he has gained a *knowlege* of his religion, he should make himself an *example* of it.' With respect to preaching on controverted points, Dr. Wilson is made to give his opinion in the most liberal manner:

'I know not, (said the Bishop) whether, in some of our most agitated questions, either side can be fairly said to be right, or wrong. So much may be offered on both sides, that neither, perhaps, can be absolutely condemned. Thus, for instance, in the dispute with dissenters about church government, as church government is not precisely defined in scripture, we have no right to condemn presbytery, though we may like our own form better.—Again, with regard to faith, and works; it appears to me, on laying the whole scheme of the gospel together, that *its grand intention was, to restore man to that purity he had lost by the fall;* that a *holy life,* therefore, is the great point to be insisted on;—*faith* the means; and the *merits of Christ* to make up our deficiencies. At the same time, I dare not condemn the Solfidean, who lays the whole stress on faith: and says, that works will follow. So they will, if faith be what it ought to be: but I, fearing mistakes, am as strenuous in avoiding any imputation on good works, as he is in avoiding any imputation on faith. And yet

yet, as we both mean equally well, and have both the words of scripture on our side, it may be wrong, perhaps, for either to condemn the other.—Even with regard to the great and important question on the *divinity of Christ*, there are many texts of scripture, which seem plainly to prove both his *divinity*, and his *humanity;* and if I were to take my creed *only* from those texts, I scarce know which side I should espouse. But in discussing this question, it appears to me the right way to take into it the *whole scheme of the gospel.* As a part of this scheme I plainly find it set forth in scripture, that *Christ's death was an atonement for sin;* and I ask myself, whether I think it possible that a *human being* should take upon himself the office of making such atonement? This is sufficient to satisfy *myself*, that my side of the question is right. At the same time, I dare not condemn the upright unitarian, who thinks he draws his best proofs from the *words of scripture*; though even these too, in my own opinion, militate in my cause: for Christ, we know, was the Emanuel, both God and man; so that we, likewise, with the unitarian, in one sense, attribute humanity to him. Thus in a number of other questions, which have not an immoral tendency, I dare not condemn such persons as differ from me. If they be sincere, good men, my language to them would be, let us not dispute about the few points on which we differ; but let us rather esteem each other for the many, on which we agree. If, on the other hand, I have reason to think them ill-disposed, bad men, I am silent, and avoid dispute with them of any kind; well-knowing that I may raise warm blood; but can never convince an uncandid mind.'

While the author manifests a strong attachment to the Established Church, he wishes his young divine to avoid the character of (what is commonly called) a sound orthodox churchman. His words here must be quoted:

'The orthodox churchman makes it his business, (*tooth and nail* as they say) to defend every thing that is etablished.—The government of the church of England is faultless.—The education of its members, in our universities, such as cannot be improved. Its liturgy is perfect; creeds, and articles, cannot be amended; pluralities are defensible; and the unequal provision of the clergy, right, and as it should be. Now, though I should despise the man who should become a member of our church, without thinking it *good on the whole*, yet I could not but suspect the sincerity of him, who would persuade you, there is *nothing but good* in it.'

By the title of the dialogues *on the various difficulties*, &c. we were reminded of Bishop Hare's celebrated letter on "the Difficulties and Discouragements," &c. but the difficulties to which Mr. G. adverts chiefly respect clerical conduct, whereas those of the Bishop are confined to doctrine: not that the present author omits to reckon subscription to the Articles among clerical difficulties, for this subject is discussed, but the object of the paper is to assist the young clergyman in avoiding those rocks which occur in his course of life.

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The dialogue on the *Infliction of Divine Punishments*, &c. which is conducted by a Dr. Lucas and a Mr. Hales his neighbour, appears to have been constructed out of a Fast Sermon: but we cannot say that much light is thrown on this mysterious subject, though the difficulties which oppress it are very fairly exhibited. When the Doctor is hard-pushed, he is obliged to cover himself with the broad shield of ignorance; to confess that these inquiries belong not to us; and to rest in the general belief 'that God's severities to man are always just, and proportioned to his wants.'

We shall next take notice of those papers which may be called Moral; they are three in number, and are intitled the Advantages of a town and a country Life compared; on Duelling; and on the moral uses which may be drawn from Husbandry.

If the first of these topics has been often treated, it has never (we believe) been more neatly illustrated nor the comparison more accurately given than in this place. We could prove this point by many quotations, but we shall rest the truth of our assertion on one:

'The country has various subjects for our meditation. Amongst its advantages, I think, we may consider a less expensive mode of living.—A man may be expensive any where: but I speak of the sober œconomy of a regular family, which lives much within itself; and therefore much cheaper, than a family which is constantly obliged to live from the produce of a high-priced market. The country cuts off also the expence of the London-house—the charges of living frequently on the road—and the expensive engagements, and amusements of a town life.—Men naturally require amusements. Whether the mind is intent on study, business, or labour, still it requires some relaxation. In the town these amusements are commonly *found for us*; and we are made to pay for them. In the country, we generally *find them for ourselves*; and have them for *nothing*. If therefore a man can be as well amused (as by habit he certainly may) by seeking out amusements in the country, as by following the expensive, and often inflaming amusements of the town, he not only stands a better chance to preserve the innocence, and simplicity of his character, but he keeps his money in his pocket for better purposes.'

In the next dialogue, on Duelling, Mr. Willis (the curate) takes up the cudgels against a Col. Bret, and we wish that the serious and pertinent reasoning of the clergyman could have its due weight: but we know the world too well to expect that, on this subject, calm argument and expostulation will produce much effect.

As to the colloquy between Dr. Lucas and Farmer Hardcastle, on the moral uses of Husbandry, it is similar to Flavel's *Husbandry spiritualized*, is written for the common people, and,

and, with the dialogue on the Equality of Stations, should be generally circulated in the *Cheap Repository.*

Of a very different character are the two dialogues in the class of Belles Lettres, to which our attention is now called: the first of them, *on Education*, is supposed to pass between Archbishop Tenison and Lord Somers; and the last, including *a Defence of the Polite Arts*, is conducted by Lord Treasurer Burleigh and Sir Philip Sidney. Here Mr. Gilpin falls very little if in any degree short of his model Bishop Hurd. We recognize an equally vigorous and elegant mind; and the argument is supported with so much strength and character, that Gilpin's *Tenison* and *Somers*, *Burleigh* and *Sidney*, appear on the canvas to no disadvantage when placed by the side of Hurd's *Shaftesbury* and *Locke.* To Lord Somers is assigned the defence of Public Education, in opposition to Domestic Instruction, for which the Archbishop is an advocate, under the notion that the latter is the surest guard of virtue: but the Lawyer is most powerful in argument. He contends that

'The habit of virtue cannot be formed in a closet. Habits are formed by acts of reason, in a persevering struggle through temptation. The domestic youth has never been put to proof. His passions are not subdued: they are asleep; and have never been wakened. Rouse them by temptation; and you will then see what hold your lessons have obtained. Whereas, he who is early initiated into life, and manners, is naturalized to the soil by degrees; and certainly better able to sustain the varieties of the climate.'

'Besides, (continued Lord S.) after a short pause, give me leave to add, there are many vices, to which the private education itself very directly leads—vices altogether unchristian, and unsocial. What do you think of pride, and self-sufficiency? Does not the mind naturally slide into them, where there are no competitors? where every thing seems studiously to centre in the service of one? where there must be much deference paid (take what care you can to avoid it) and flattery administered by servile inferiors, with whom your pupil must at many times have intercourse? Does not this culture tend evidently more to foster such bad principles, than an equal government, where all are on one footing—where no peculiar attention, or deference are paid to rank, or fortune—where the youth of fashion must lower his over-weening thoughts, become one in a multitude; and make himself agreeable to those about him, by his gentle compliances, in order to live happily among them; and where they all see, that by excellence alone distinction is acquired? A school of boys, in itself, affords an admirable discipline. They teach each other better than the best philosophers, the *unwritten law of civil life.*'

The 'unwritten law of civil life' is an expression full of meaning: but this is a law which nothing besides a knowlege of the world can unfold. It is allowed in conclusion, however, that, though

though the Lord President had shewn the necessity of an early introduction to the world, the Archbishop had pointed out so many gross corruptions in the general management of schools, that the following compromise is proposed:

'Chuse the most virtuous school you can—where the head is not neglected; but where the heart is more attended to: and where religion is made more an object than learning. Here let your boy continue till he is twelve, or thirteen: in five or six years he will have shaken off the ideas of the nursery; and have gained some knowledge, both of the world, and of himself. About that time, sooner or later, his passions begin to rise; and that is the critical period, when I consider the vices of schools both in the way of knavery, and sensuality, to be most mischievous. Hitherto they have made little impression. This is the time when, if you can find a good tutor, you will certainly, by placing your son under him, I think, reap the advantage in point of morals—and in my opinion in point of learning also.'

As an elegant scholar, Mr. Gilpin writes *con amore* in defence of the Polite Arts; and he has judiciously placed their cause in the hands of Sir Philip Sidney against the Lord Treasurer, who considers them as fostering Luxury. If we cannot give the argument at full length, we shall so far gratify our readers as to present them with a specimen:

'I think, my good lord, (said Sir Philip) you should not blend the arts with *frivolous amusements*, till we have investigated the question, whether they really belong to that family. If we can separate them from this connection, I hope they will be entitled to a little more of your esteem. I suppose you will allow, that some relaxation is necessary to people of every degree; the head that thinks, and the hand that labours, must have some little time to recruit their diminished powers. I have heard (added Sir Philip with an air of modest archness,) that your Lordship, now and then, condescends to class your medals and coins; and inquire into matters of antiquity.

'Aye, aye, (said the treasurer) if the private hours of us busy people be narrowly pried into, we shall often, I doubt not, be found triflers, as well as others. However, I hope you will not consider my endeavouring to get together a little series of English history, from our ancient coins, and other vestiges of antiquity, as a mere trifling amusement, but as having something solid and useful in it.'

'Sir Philip was going to reply, that nothing was more common than to deceive ourselves in these cases, by glossing over with the name of *utility*, what, in fact, we take up merely as an amusement; but as he was a man of strict decorum, and propriety of manners, he checked any such observation as not sufficiently respectful to a person of Lord Burleigh's age, wisdom, and dignity. He contented himself, therefore, with saying, that as his Lordship had put in his caveat against considering the study of coins and medals as an amusement, he should accept it—and, in the course of his argument, leave it out of the question, as he meant chiefly to consider the arts in the light

light of amusement. Sir Philip then ran over various kinds of amusements; and classing such as belonged to the body, under the head of *exercise*, he left them out of his present argument. I have now, said he, only to do with the amusements of the mind; and as your Lordship was pleased, just now, to use the word *frivolous*, I shall take it up; and making use of it as a term of distinction among the several sorts of amusement, shall endeavour to shew, which of them may properly be called *frivolous*; and which of them may aspire to a higher denomination.

'That there is a difference in amusements, as there is in employments, we must all acknowledge. As the hand which holds the plough, is inferior to the head which governs the state; so in amusements, such as we fly to for mere relaxation, are certainly of a nature very inferior to those which are addressed to the finer feelings of the mind. Among the former, I rank carding, dicing, primero, and other petty games; among the latter music, perhaps, poetry, painting, statuary, and architecture; all of which are calculated to make pleasing impressions on the imagination, or to adorn, and polish life. Many of them, too, make such impressions as, though not absosutely virtuous in themselves, are, I think, nearly allied to virtue, both from their innocence, and from their close connection, often, with virtuous feelings, and virtuous employments.'

Lord Burleigh ingenuously confesses that he is convinced by Sir Philip's oratory; which, indeed, is often truly eloquent.

To the dialogues which we have ranked under the head of Popular Politics, we cannot now bestow any particular attention. One of them, written at the commencement of the French Revolution, with great plainness and good sense, exposed the stupid notion of Equality; and this, as we have already said, ought to be circulated among the common people. The other relates to *Indiscriminate Alms-giving*, and is calculated to expose the vices of Common Vagrants, and the unkindness as well as impolicy of relieving them. This country possesses many good and well disposed christians, on whom the knowlege and advice contained in this dialogue ought to be impressed; since our Vagrants are really a nuisance, and charity to them is often uncharitableness to society.

It will be seen by the view which we have given of the contents of this volume, that its subjects are various, and adapted to different classes of readers. Mr. Gilpin has shewn that he can write for the high and the low; and to the instruction and improvement of both, his dialogues are well adapted. We have no doubt that they will contribute to increase the fund of the Boldre School, which was established by the amiable author; and when they come to a second edition, we trust that the gross errors of the press, especially in the Latin quotations, will be corrected.

Mo-y.

ART.

ART. III. *A Picture of Madrid*: taken on the Spot. By Christian Augustus Fischer. Translated from the German. 12mo. pp. 306. 6s. Boards. Mawman. 1808.

AUTHORS and booksellers are always on the alert to furnish the public with matter adapted to the features and complexion of the times; and whenever their undertakings are conducted with fairness and ability, they are certainly intitled to praise. We, however, who are in the habit of keeping suspicion awake, are apt to question the genuineness of those publications which, without preface or introduction, are offered to satiate the eager appetite of curiosity; and therefore, on the present occasion, we had considerable doubts respecting the novelty of the matter which is here served up to the English reader. In M. R. Vol. 41. N. S. p. 263. we noticed a work intitled *Travels in Spain in* 1797 and 1798, by *Frederick* Augustus Fischer, translated from the German, 1802; and though *Christian* is here substituted for *Frederick*, we supposed that it was not impossible that the present volume might have been compiled out of those Travels: but, on comparison, we find that, though some passages are exactly the same, (excepting the differences occasioned by a bad translation,) the work before us cannot be represented as a plagiarism; and perhaps Frederick Fischer and Christian Fischer may be brothers, or at least relations*. Be this as it may, the public had a right to some explanation; and for the credit of the *Picture* before us, such explanation ought not to have been suppressed. It now appears in that naked and suspicious shape, which a respectable publication should never assume.

As far as the execution of the translation is concerned, the English editor has little reason to be proud of his labour; since we may justly apply to him the common proverb of having *made more haste than good speed*, and many of his mistakes and blunders are truly ludicrous. He talks of 'old houses mostly built of *carpenter's work*;' of streets '*copiously mixed* with bad buildings;' and of 'beautiful modern buildings even *on waste ground*.' We are informed in the *Travels* of *Frederick* Fischer, that the granite, of which the modern houses in Madrid are constructed, "is brought from a distance

* See also the Picture of Valencia, in our last Number, p. 200.

of sixteen or eighteen leagues:" but *Christian* reports that it 'is fetched from a distance of between eight and nine leagues:' —which of the two accounts is most accurate, we are unable to decide. Who can help smiling when they read of 'the *Captain* of Capernaum;' of 'smaragds *in the mother*;' of 'the multitude increasing with the throng;' of 'streets meeting *together* in a square;' of 'a bustling of groups and a *change* of masses;' of 'flag-labourers;' of 'air having a stability,' &c.

To those, however, who can tolerate such phraseology, the information contained in these pages will certainly be amusing. The volume is constructed on the plan of Mercier's Picture of Paris; presenting under various heads a delineation of the capital of Spain, as well with respect to its edifices and institutions, as to the state of society and manners. According to this representation, Spain has made a greater advance in science and in the cultivation of liberal principles than is generally ascribed to her; and we are told that to such a degree is bigotry removed from the Spanish character, that 'the Inquisition in modern times seems to have become a tribunal of morals, which is now the only object of its functions, heretics and heresy being quite out of the question; so that no foreigner has any more occasion to dread its rigors.' This *Holy Office* was not even deemed worthy of distinct specification, but occurs as it were incidentally in the section on Manufactures. Let it not, however, be hence inferred that the Spaniard's zeal for the Catholic ritual is declining. The ceremonies of the church are still great objects of consideration at Madrid; where, says M. Fischer, 'the people live for little else than gallantry and devotion.' By the order in which these words are placed, he would insinuate that gallantry is the *first object* and devotion only the *means*; and that the value of the one arises from its happy subserviency to the intrigues of the other. Indeed, the picture of the Spanish ladies here displayed is sufficient to shew that Love has no where erected a more triumphant empire than in Madrid.

Though in our books of travels many accounts of this capital may be found, and though our readers cannot be supposed to be altogether ignorant of its singular situation and prominent features, yet, as our attention is now directed with a particular interest to the affairs of Spain, it may not be improper to transcribe the topographical survey of Madrid as given by the present writer: which will at once exhibit the descriptive powers of M. Fischer and the blunders of his translator:

'Almost

'Almost in the centre of Spain, longitude * 40° 25′ 18″, lies the city of Madrid in an uneven plain, intersected with hillocks, and skirted N.W by the mountains of *Guaddarrama*.

'It represents an irregular quadrangle; is encompassed by a thin but high wall of mould, and measures near two leagues or 48,000 Castilian feet in circumference. Its length from the gate of *Fuencarral* to that of *Toledo* may amount to FIVE quarters of a league, and its breadth from the *Alcala* gates to that of *Segovia* only three quarters.

'According to the most recent and authentic estimates of Spanish authors, it contains a population of 130,980 souls, without including children †, garrison, and hospitals: 7,100 dwelling-houses, 77 churches, 44 convents for monks, 31 nunneries, 19 hospitals, 15 gates, &c.

'Upon close inspection, the old quarters of Madrid can very plainly be distinguished from the new: in those the houses are shabby, the streets narrow and winding; whereas, in these you will mostly find considerable buildings, with broad and regular streets.

'The old houses are mostly of *carpenters' work*, and the modern of granite, which must be fetched from a distance of between eight and nine leagues. The old have seldom more than three stories, whereas many of the new are from four to five stories high; the former are here and there decorated with scenes from the bull fights, dancing figures, &c.; but the latter are for the most part quite plain, and painted yellow. The first have high and narrow windows, small and ill built balconies, and the tops so constructed, as to project over the bottom; while the last are quite the reverse, yet both variously exhibit crucifixes and images of the virgin and saints.

'The palaces of the grandees are more remarkable by their spaciousness than their structure; for among them the palaces of the Dukes of Medina Celi, de Alba, and Infantado, deserve mention.

'Among the public edifices, very few are entitled to notice; and, in this number, the only ones seem to be the two royal palaces, custom-house, post-office, council-hall, with the great hospital and some churches.

'Upon the whole, both the old and more modern streets of Madrid *are copiously mixed* with badly contrasted buildings. In the old, for instance, we remark the *Calle Magor*, with low arcades, in the very middle of which, we see, between some old and miserable houses, two modern and tasteful mansions. This contrast appears still more striking in the *Calle de Segovia*, and particularly in the *Calle de Toledo*. Here are several very beautiful modern buildings surrounded by hovel-like cots, and even *on waste ground*.

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* Here only the *longitude* is given, which conveys no definite idea unless the place through which the first meridian is drawn be mentioned, and not the *latitude*, which is the point of most importance to be ascertained. *Rev.*

† Does the above enumeration comprehend only heads of families and servants? *Rev.*

'In the modern quarters of Madrid, the streets *de Alcala, San Bernardo de Fuencarral,* and some others, may certainly be reckoned among the finest in Europe; yet their beauty is still deformed by some mean and wretched habitations.

'In the *Calle de Alcala,* for instance, quite close to the superb custom-house, an old shell of a building appears, without noticing many others in the above mentioned streets. Even facing the large and magnificent post-house in the celebrated square of *Puerta del Sol,* you find nothing but low little buildings.

'The pavement in these streets, especially the new quarters, is much better than in many a much larger capital. It consists of a kind of extremely hard pebble, dug out of quarries in the neighbourhood of Madrid. The pavements for foot passengers are a little too narrow, but uncommonly well kept; the city is also well lighted, the lamps not being more than fifteen yards one from another.

'With regard to the environs of Madrid, they are far from being pleasant. It is an open ill cultivated plain, full of barren *mouldy* heights, planted with olive trees in a few insulated places at most, *but in the vicinity of the city, especially on the banks of the Manarenes,* we find *better* meadows, kitchen-gardens, and nurseries, which variegate at least in a slight degree the dreary landscape.

'The high mountains of *Guaddarrama,* north-west, afford perhaps in other respects the only picturesque point of view in the whole district.

'The plain surrounding Madrid consists of chalk and clay, covered with layers of granite, which come from the mountains. These layers are remarkable for the natural *avanturina,* which is found here in large quantities. It consists of a reddish granite, delicately sprinkled with a glimmer as yellow as gold, and when polished has a very fine appearance.

'To describe in a few words the site of Madrid, it may be said to be like an island in the ocean: no villages! no country houses! no suburbs! no gradual avenues! Leave the road and you stand already in the *streets of the residence.*'

To this survey, some notice of Climate is subjoined, which we shall also transcribe:

'Consider the situation of Madrid—in the centre of the country, at an elevation of two thousand feet above the surface of the sea, in the vicinity of a ridge of high mountains, on a naked and open plain—you will then easily conceive that the climate must have a certain kind of *rudeness,* which could not otherwise be expected in this latitude.

'The air is excellent, upon the whole: it has a purity, lightness, dryness, and *stability* unknown in the north of Europe: the *middling* height of the barometer twenty-six inches one line; its greatest variation only fourteen lines and a half, *which* [*and it*] hardly makes a difference of two lines in twenty-four hours.

'But the change of the temperature is greater, partly during different hours of the day, partly with regard to summer and winter. As to the former, a variation of from fifteen to eighteen degrees is

observed towards the morning and evening hours, nay, in autumn, very often from thirty-eight to thirty-nine; as to the latter, Reaumur's thermometer usually *points out* from twenty-five to twenty-eight degrees in summer, and on the hottest days from thirty-four to thirty-six. In winter it falls from seven to nine degrees and if the cold weather is uncommonly severe, ten degrees below the freezing point. North-east winds are the most prevalent.'

It is farther stated under this head that, though the air of Madrid is pure, the sudden variations in the state of the atmosphere subject the inhabitants to epidemical diseases: but that lunacy and madness are very rare.

Distinct sections are appropriated to accounts of Palaces, Squares, Houses of Grandees, Academies, Libraries, Hospitals and Charitable Institutions, Processions, Bull-Fights, Manufactories, Prisons, Coffee-houses, Booksellers, Gazettes, Diversions, Assemblies, Fasts, Theatres, Police, Intercourse between the Sexes, &c. &c.

Were we to form any notion of the progress of knowlege in the Spanish capital from the number of its scientific establishments, we should be disposed to believe that philosophy was not so much neglected in this part of Europe as most persons have supposed:

'The following is the completest and most accurate list of the scientific institutions at Madrid, as they appear in the Court Calendar. 1. The Royal Spanish Academy. 2. The Royal Academy of History. 3. The Royal Academy of the Noble Arts. 4. The Royal Medical Academy. 5. The Royal Economical Society. 6. The Royal Academy of Spanish Law. 7. The Royal Academy of Jurisprudence of King Charles III. 8. The Royal Academy of Jurisprudence of the Conception. 9. The Royal Academy of Theoretical and Practical Law. 10. The Royal Academy of Canonical Law. 11. The Royal Latin Academy. 12. The Royal Academy of Civil Canonical Law. 13. The Royal Academy of Patriotic Law. 14. The Royal College of St. Isidore. 15. The Royal Seminary for Young Noblemen. 16. The Royal Observatory and Body of Engineers. 17. The Royal Cabinet of Natural History. 18. The Royal Botanical Garden. 19. The Royal Chymical Laboratory and College of Mineralogy. 20. The Royal General Society of the United Faculty of Physicians.'

Of public Libraries, also, we are told that Madrid contains not fewer than seven, and six private; the latter of which are of easy access. These institutions appear to be well conducted, as will be evident from the account of the first mentioned, or

'The King's Library.

'This is an ancient mean building, which formerly served to keep up a communication between the palace, which is burnt down, and

the neighbouring church of St. Giles's. In 1712, an insignificant number of volumes was brought hither from the royal palace, and with these the library was opened

'After what has been premised, nobody will expect a splendid edifice. It consists only of two low corridors, with some side-rooms, all in want of sufficient light. On each side are the book-cases, which are grated, and in the middle the tables to read on.

'The whole sum of this literary treasure is comprised in 180,000 volumes, and upwards of 2000 manuscripts.

'Many forbidden books are included in the number, and put up in a separate apartment.

'Meanwhile a number of literary productions, particularly English, seem to have escaped proscription. I myself, for instance, found here the original edition of Bolingbroke's work, which was placed in the principal apartment, for every body's perusal.

'It is impossible to ascertain any thing as to the completeness of this library, because the books are so parted, and not all arranged in due systematical order. Meanwhile, I have been assured, that in the practical branches of the sciences almost all new English and French works are to be found there, and upon examining the geographical department I found the assertion to be true. Spanish literature is of course the completest, as by order of the government a certain number of copies of every publication, even in America, must be sent to the King's library.

'The foreigners, who mostly ask for Spanish works, are thus sufficiently indemnified for being deprived of the use of those which are prohibited.

'A cabinet of coins is added to this library, containing an important collection of medals and coins, of the Emperors of the East and West, as well as the rich collection of the Abbé Rothelin, from Orleans, and the Samaritan coins, discovered by Bayer and Tychen. This collection is in a separate room, at the end of the last corridor. The library is open every day from nine till twelve in the morning, and from three till six in the afternoon; but in July till the beginning of October, the morning hours are from eight to eleven, and those of the afternoon from five to seven o'clock.

'The number of persons appointed to officiate here is considerable, consisting of a head librarian, four sub-librarians, four secretaries, as many attendants and a door keeper.

'Every person is admitted without distinction, even the meanest plebeian may come here undisturbed to pay homage to the muses; yet, people with their hair in paper, ragged garments, wearing a kind of dress called in France *citoyen*, must not appear.

'The strictest order is preserved in reading; and for the better accommodation of the readers, the chairs have cushions, the tables are covered with green baize, and formerly even writing paper was likewise free from expence; but owing to some abuses, this custom has since been suppressed.

'The stone floor is spread with mats in winter, and every room warmed with braziers. The librarians and inferior officers are very complaisant and punctual in attending their duty.

'To

'To prevent all errors, a large clock stands at one end of the first apartment, and the shutting up of the library is announced by the ringing of a bell.'

As a *set-off* to this display of science, we are indeed informed that Madrid has no circulating libraries, nor shops for reading journals and newspapers: but it is said that a taste for this mental gratification has arisen, and that a beginning is making in this line. So sanguine is the author respecting the literary improvements of the Spaniards, that he adds,

'It is highly probable that some enterprising genius will soon establish a *Gabinete de Lectura.*

'Novels, plays, voyages, and travels may, notwithstanding, be purchased in great numbers, both originals and translations. The love of reading becomes very predominant, and the trade of publishers and booksellers augments every day. The critics are less severe, the authors more courageous, and, consequently, more numerous. I could venture a bet that, in less than ten years, Spain will afford multifarious literary productions, which will be announced in the reviews of every polished nation in Europe, of which a beginning has already been made in Germany *.'

Within these last ten years, the book trade has increased in Spain: but it is still insignificant, compared with that of England, France, and Germany.

M. Fischer is of opinion that the Spaniards are wrongly taxed with being a saturnine and melancholy people; and their numerous diversions and amusements have inclined him to consider them as possessing much native sprightliness. Excepting in the administration of justice, which he depicts as atrociously venal, he makes a favourable report of the public institutions of Madrid; and though he does not represent the inhabitants as more moral than those of other cities, his account of their charitable institutions reflects much honour on their character. The hospitals are conducted on the most benevolent principles; and the attention which is paid in them to the sick, by the different brotherhoods, is creditable to the Catholic religion:

'To obtain admission (observes this writer) into these mansions of charity, it needs no formalities, no enquiries, no particular recommendations; to be ill is sufficient.

'He who is yet able to walk goes there; he who cannot walk sends word, and he is fetched away. Be he a Spaniard or foreigner, a Catholic or Protestant, known or unknown, it matters not; his dis-

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'* An excellent view of modern Spanish literature has been published in the Literary Gazette of Jena, for 1801; numbers 149, 152, 155, 156, 157, and 158, by Dr. Ersch.'

ease is the only question, and thus he stays and is taken care of, not only till he is cured, but, as we must not omit to mention, till he has completely regained his former strength

'All the poor inhabitants of Madrid, and a great number of such as are not in low circumstances, avail themselves of the benefit of this noble foundation. It is no disgrace here to go to the hospital, as people well know they are better attended there. A patient, who pays six reals a day, receives a separate room, and better victuals.

'The expences of these hospitals are very great; but they enjoy funds more than sufficient to answer every exigency. To these may be added a number of extraordinary revenues, for instance a fifth of the receipt at every playhouse; the whole profit arising from the bull-fights at Madrid, which often amounts to a million of reals, besides other sources of income.'—

'Whatever objection may be made to the Catholic religion, certain it is, that on this head it has at all times had a great and beneficial influence. The arguments of philanthropists would perhaps never have effected that which religious sentiments have here done for suffering humanity.'

The Spaniards at their Bull-Fights resemble the antient Romans at their Amphitheatres, and in this point of view display much savage ferocity: but for the sin of this diversion they compound with heaven, by assigning all the profits of it to the support of Hospitals. Religion is described as "perfect freedom" in the fullest sense of the word; being so arranged as to be very convenient to sinners. If we are to believe this author, their very Fasts are kept without much self-denial and mortification of the flesh:

'At no time in the year are the churches more crowded with praying and confessing sinners; at no time is Cupid surer to practise his archery more successfully than in Lent. Then the loving couples generally meet at church in the evening, accompany the sacrament while carrying to the sick; follow the procession of the rosary; and after taking *a little bye-way*, return again to meditate again upon the *holy offices* they have performed.

'Indeed, the Lent season, at Madrid, is far from being so mournful and melancholy as some people may think. They purchase the usual bull of the pope, to eat whatever they think proper, and they make what is called the *holy mother religion* contribute to their gratification, while Heaven permits the power of indulgence.'

We turn from M. Fischer's glowing account of the Spanish Ladies, and their voluptuous dances. In "the joys of our dancing days," the picture might have warmed our fancies: but now, when we can only write *Troja fuit*, we may as well restrain our pens, and leave the young rogues to guess how "they manage these matters" in Spain.

Moy.

ART.

ART. IV. *A Picture of Lisbon;* taken on the Spot; being a Description, Moral, Civil, Political, Physical, and Religious, of that Capital; with Sketches of the Government, Character, and Manners of the Portuguese in general. By a Gentleman many Years resident at Lisbon. 8vo. pp. 242. 8s. Boards. Colburn. 1808. (*Mis-printed* 1809.)

OUR readers must have often heard of the Beggar's prayer, "*From Hell, Hull, and Halifax, Good Lord deliver us*;" and if any credit may be afforded to the statements in the pages before us, the petition not only of Beggars but of all orders ought to be, "*From Lisbon and all its plagues, Good Lord deliver us.*" Never, in all our reading, did we encounter a more disgusting and repellent account than is here furnished of the capital of Portugal; and it is difficult to conceive how a population of 300,000 persons could be long kept together under the accumulation of evils which occurs in this picture. Every thing is wrong, and every thing is adverse to social comfort and enjoyment. When the blacking brush, however, is very liberally used, we are always inclined to suppose that the artist has some spleen to gratify, and that he is more awake to defects than to beauties. No intimation is given respecting the situation of this *Gentleman-resident*: but we conjecture that the work was not originally written in English; and it appears, from various particulars in the narrative, that it is not the production of a very recent observer. Having perhaps felt the effects of Portuguese despotism, his resentments are strong, and we suspect that in the following sketch he has exhibited himself: 'The man of letters, when he is oppressed, is silent, he observes; he contemplates the nefarious sport of his oppressors; he fathoms their projects in all their depths. As soon as he can take his flight, he unfolds with energy impressive truths; he unmasks subaltern tyranny; he unmasks tyrants also, &c.' As soon, then, perhaps, as this man of letters had reached a place of safety, in which he could vent his feelings and sentiments without fear, he sat down to his picture of Lisbon, and resolved *to paint the Devil even blacker than he really is.*—We shall state the outlines as nearly as possible in the author's own words.

'The climate of Lisbon is very variable; the rains are always heavy and copious, and the atmosphere is consequently very damp; in the winter, the moisture is more disagreeable than the cold, and in the summer evenings the transition from intense heat to coldness is so sudden, that after having perspired profusely during the day *one* almost shivers when night approaches.' Add to this that 'Lisbon is very subject to earthquakes, and the climate very dangerous to health.'

What,

What, then, can induce our physicians to send their sickly patients to this city; especially those who are labouring under catarrhal affections?—'No Public Buildings are to be seen worthy of fixing for a moment the attention of the lovers of the arts;' as to the Private Houses, 'they are badly laid out, coarsely planked, and uncomfortable;' and in the Inns the filth is in extreme: the guest is accommodated with 'a napkin that has been eight days in use, an iron fork covered with grease and rust, cracked dishes, plates with their edges worn off by long service, soup of which water is almost the only ingredient, a ragout which operates more powerfully than agreeably on the olfactory nerves, a sauce in which salt is the only seasoning, a dish of roast meat burnt to a stick, served up on a table as dirty as the floor on which it stands.'—'The Portuguese Domestics are in general uncleanly, aukward, ignorant and inattentive.' So little security is preserved without doors that 'Lisbon is a city the most fit for encouraging robbery and assassination;' and 'there is no town or village in which the streets are so muddy, so dusty, so dirty and impassable.' Not the old part of the capital of the northern part of our island, in the worst of times, was ever annoyed with nuisances equal to those which exist in Lisbon; nuisances against which it is in vain for the passenger to protest by the cry of "*Hauld your hond:*"

'At nine o'clock in the evening, the windows are opened, a number of chamber-utensils are advanced, and there falls from all quarters a deluge of pestilential matter, against which the passenger can guard himself only by walking close against the wall. He escapes the worst effects of this unexpected and general attack; but the next morning he goes and walks in the streets in broad day light, when suddenly he is assailed and surrounded with a vortex of filthy fetid substances, his head is covered with them, his clothes are bedaubed, a suffocating stench arises, and while he stands confounded and almost bereft of his senses, the mob collects around him and bursts of laughter break forth. If the individual who has been thus bemired, bedaubed and poisoned, institutes a legal process, it is lengthened out to five, six, eight years; thirty times the value of the clothes is expended, the clothes must be deposited with the registrar, who, not overburdened with superfluous delicacy, has them washed, scoured, and turned, converts them to his own use, makes his children or domestics wear them, or sells them to the dealers in old clothes, as his perquisites.'

The picture of Ministerial Despotism is coloured equally high, and equally beyond the limits of probability, with that of the subordinate agents. The examples which are produced must shock every virtuous mind, 'and induce every honest and prudent man to keep at a distance from a country where property, honour, liberty, are the sport of the caprice of ministers,

ministers, who openly violate every sacred principle of law and right.'

Even in the condition of the Nobles, little appears that is calculated to excite envy; and as to the populace, they are depicted as wretched in the extreme. 'In general, the horrors of misery encompass the people of Lisbon on every side.' 'This government founds monasteries, but leaves the people without an asylum; it endows convents, but forms no establishments, where misery may repose its head.' After a farther detail of the total neglect of the people by the government, the author thus proceeds:

'The miseries which they have to endure, have a remarkable influence upon both the physical and the moral condition of any people. This influence is very visible in the people of Lisbon: they are relaxed, pale, diminutive, stunted in their stature; serious, pensive, uneasy; indigence cannot divest them of pride; but they are proud without courage. They bear at once the ignominious fetters of slavery, and the overwhelming burden of poverty. They are trampled upon like an insect that dares not raise its head; they tremble at the voice, at the sight of the most subordinate agent of the police; it is against them especially that the most violent and the most iniquitous despotism is exercised. What is the result? A people without soul, without energy, without courage, a people without strength, without character, without will, a people the most timid, the most pusillanimous in the universe, an enslaved, a degraded people.'

As the Portuguese have no *Habeas Corpus act*, their prisons are prisons indeed; and at the sight of them humanity revolts:

'The unhappy beings who enter them are totally cut off from all society, they are not suffered to have any communication with their legal counsellors; they are never visited by any magistrate, and no provision is made for their subsistence.'

'An honest man who falls under the minister's suspicion is not allowed the privilege of defending himself; while for the assassin who is clearly convicted, the monks, nuns, and ladies of the court will put themselves in motion to obtain a pardon, and generally succeed. Thus society is inundated with criminals.'

On the score of Provisions, also, Lisbon is here represented as having little to boast:

'Portugal, with a fertile soil, that requires only cultivation, that is capable of producing every thing, is in want of every thing, and derives its supplies of almost every necessary of life from foreign countries.

'It scarcely produces corn sufficient for three months' consumption, oil for five or six months, pulse for three or four months. Potherbs are also scarce; the superior kinds are cultivated only in the gardens of a few individuals, for their own particular use. No esculent vegetables are found here in any considerable abundance, except some kinds of fruit, such as citrons, oranges, figs, and grapes.

Good

Good plums, pears, peaches, or apricots, are not common, neither are strawberries; raspberries are also scarce; neither gooseberries nor apples are to be met with, nor any kind of fruit for winter consumption.

'The Portuguese import corn from the coast of Africa, from Italy, from England, and from France, oil from Italy, rice from the Levant, dried beans from Holland, oxen and sheep from various foreign parts, especially from the kingdom of Morocco.

'Calves are not reared in Portugal *. They make neither butter nor cheese: the former they procure from Ireland, the latter from England, yet the consumption of both is enormous.'—

'Rice is much eaten in Lisbon, even in the most opulent families: it forms a part of every meal. It is generally served up plain, boiled without any seasoning. Mixed with turnip-tops, it is the principal part of the food that is given to the domestics. It is however very dear, as it comes from the Levant, and the Portuguese have too little industry to fetch it from the country where it is produced. They have it from Italy; consequently at second-hand.

'The candles that are made at Lisbon are very badly manufactured: they are ill-shaped, of a bad colour and soft. They import a much better kind from Russia.

'In their kitchens they burn a bad sort of fir wood, which has a disagreeable smell, affords little heat, and produces an unequal fire. They also burn pit-coal, which is seldom of a good quality, and *sepas*, or roots of shrubs, which are their best fuel.

'The sale of water for drinking and other domestic uses at Lisbon amounts to an enormous sum, computed at little less than 80,000l. sterling per annum.'

Under the head of Funerals, as well as on other occasions, the author places the Catholic priests in no prepossessing light:

'The lower class of people are buried without any ceremony; but however poor they may be, their interment must be paid for. The parish priests in Portugal do nothing without being paid for it; the most abject, the most evident, the best attested poverty cannot induce them to lend their gratuitous services. If the poor man has left no money, he cannot be interred; the most earnest prayers, the tears of the afflicted relatives, the lamentations of a destitute family cannot move the inflexible priest: he remains inexorable, refers his petitioners to the alms of the faithful in order to complete the sum which he requires, and in the mean time he leaves the body to putrefy on the bed of straw on which the deceased has breathed his last.

'Under such circumstances the afflicted relatives have no other resource than to carry the corpse of a father, a mother, a husband, or a wife, to the door of the church, and there leave it to the mercy

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* If calves are not reared, how is the stock of cows kept up? We suspect that here, as in other places, this gentleman goes beyond the mark. *Rev.*

and

and charity of the pastor. The pastor leaves it in the place where they have deposited it, and has a dish placed beside it to receive the alms of the persons that pass by; these he counts over every day, and when they amount to the sum which he demands, he orders some of the persons under him to inter the body, which they do by throwing it *harshly* into a grave, while he mutters over the indispensable prayers for the dead. This shocking spectacle is to be seen in Lisbon every day, and strangers avoid directing their eyes towards the doors of the parish churches, for fear of beholding this sight of horror.'

Literature and science cannot be expected to be in a very flourishing state, among a people existing under the circumstances above described. According to this writer, nothing can exceed the ignorance which prevails even in the University and the Academies of the Portuguese. It is reported of the Academy of Sciences that it 'is a strange combination of persons who cannot and are not intended to do any thing; of persons who cannot and do not wish to do any thing; and of persons who take great pains to appear to be doing something, but who actually do not more than those that do nothing.' Here, however, the *Editor* steps forwards, in contradiction of this report; and we are inclined to think that in other respects some editorial notes should have been subjoined, by way of *caveats* to exaggerations. The beauty of the Portuguese females is the only object on which praise is bestowed.

We apprehend that this account has been derived from a French source, and that the Editor is in fact the translator. The Gallicism of *one* does this and *one* does that occurs eight times in the space of eight lines, at p. 43. We have already remarked, also, that the observations of this Resident must have been made some years ago. He speaks of Mr. de Vismes, the English merchant, as having *just* sold his villa to Mr. Beckford; a transaction of no recent date. The King of Portugal is mentioned as then living, and the Prince of Brazils is represented as young and without experience, whereas he is now 41 years old. Money is also valued in French livres.

Mo-y.

ART. V. *A View of the Nervous Temperament;* being a practical Inquiry into the increasing Prevalence, Prevention, and Treatment of those Diseases commonly called nervous, bilious, stomach, and liver Complaints; Indigestion; low Spirits; Gout, &c. By Thomas Trotter, M. D., &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 328. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807.

IN entering on the perusal of a treatise on nervous diseases, our first inquiry is, in what sense is the word *nervous* employed?

ployed? Is it restricted to its proper nosological meaning, to designate those diseases only in which the nerves are the primary seat of malady; or is it extended, in conformity with the popular custom, to all those cases in which the patient experiences a general feeling of indisposition, when attended with a depression of spirits?—for such appears to be the only definition of nervous diseases, that can include all which is generally implied in the common acceptation of the term. Dr. Trotter's title is sufficient to inform us that he adopts the current language, since it is immediately evident that 'bilious, stomach, and liver complaints, indigestion, and gout,' do not depend on a primary affection of the nervous system. Although we think that this vague manner of employing the term *nervous* is on many accounts objectionable, and not the less because it coincides with the popular custom, we shall not at present stay to controvert this point, but shall follow the author through his inquiry, first into the causes which give rise to these diseases, and afterward into the method of removing them.

Dr. Trotter observes that the class of nervous diseases is becoming much more prevalent than formerly in this country, and points out the manner in which it is rendered so both by the luxurious habits of the higher orders of society, and the unhealthy occupations to which a large part of the lower classes are confined. Of the general fact no one can doubt, and it leads to a train of unpleasant reflections respecting the future welfare of this empire.

Chapter I. is occupied by a comparison of the savage state with one of the highest degree of civilization, so far as it affects the health and physical constitution; which, though in many respects just, is (we think) drawn too much in favour of the former. In the 2d chapter, we have a more detailed account of the medical condition of the inhabitants of large cities. This description elucidates the causes of the increased frequency of nervous diseases, by shewing that they are the most prevalent in those situations in which the supposed causes principally operate. In this part of the work, we meet with many just observations, and some that display considerable acuteness: but others appear to be hasty and unfounded, derived either from some fashionable hypothesis, or altogether depending on the individual fancy of the author.

Among the remote causes of nervous diseases, Dr. Trotter not unaptly enumerates 'medicines:'

'All nervous persons,' he remarks, 'are uncommonly fond of drugs; and they are the chief consumers of advertised remedies, which they conceal from their medical friends. Among some well-

meaning people, this inordinate desire for medicine has frequently become of itself a disease. With many of them, physic, to be useful, must be clothed in mystery; and the moment a discovery is made of the composition, the confidence is lost. Medical attendants have too often brought this punishment on themselves. Were they unanimous in combating the prejudices of mankind, by candour and openness of conduct, by a fair avowal of the imperfections of their art, and the honest confession that articles of *Materia Medica* form but a small portion of its resources, they would not so frequently see their commands disregarded, or learn that their compounds have been thrown out of a window. This is the only way in which I can account for so many persons of good sense and discernment, consigning themselves and families into the hands of impudent and illiterate quacks.'

From these considerations, Dr. T. is led to notice individually the bad effects which are not unfrequently produced by an injudicious and unauthorized employment of different active medicines, and enumerates a train of evils which every practitioner must have often witnessed. Here, however, as in the former case, we have to regret that some of the observations are founded rather on conjecture than experience, and are therefore not only in themselves disputable, but prevent the reader from giving his assent to that which is really valuable, by causing him to distrust the sagacity and discrimination of the author.

The next chapter, on the history and progress of nervous diseases, commences by stating, as must evidently appear to be the fact, that a methodical account of them is impossible. This must necessarily be the case from the variety of affections which are classed together under the title of *nervous*, though they have no intimate or immediate connection with each other; and which, if they occur in the same subject, must originate from different circumstances that happen to coincide, rather than from the same general cause. Dr. Trotter, indeed, remarks that 'the only thing certain and peculiar in their character, is predisposition;' and he afterward proceeds to detail, at some length, the symptoms which mark this predisposition: but we confess that they do not convey to us any precise idea of the state of the system, which, we suppose, they are intended to describe. They comprehend every affection which might arise from general debility, either derived from original constitution, or induced by improper management. The same kind of vagueness seems to attach to the chapter in which the author lays down his general doctrines on the subject of nervous diseases. Though, in the commencement, he appears inclined to restrict them to an

affection

affection of the digestive organs, yet he afterward admits that a particular state of the mind is a necessary part of their pathology:

'They are so far to be classed among mental disorders, that a *disposition of mind*, not easily to be defined, attends every degree and stage of them; beginning with uncommon sensibility to all impressions; peevishness of temper; irresolution of conduct; sudden transitions from sadness to joy, and the contrary; silent or loquacious; officiously busy, or extremely indolent; irascible; false perceptions; wavering judgment; melancholy; madness: exhibiting in the whole, signs of deranged sensation.'

A considerable part of this chapter is occupied in endeavouring to trace the connection between the peculiar state of the system which the author calls nervous, and the diseases which he arranges under the same designation. We cannot, however, always assent to the reasoning which he employs; his arguments do not appear to us sufficient to produce conviction; and in several instances, we think, his pathology is obviously incorrect.

The last chapter, on the prevention and treatment of nervous diseases, like the rest of the work, contains many good remarks and suggestions which may be useful both to the physician and to those who are concerned in the education of youth. The directions given are, in course, as general as the idea which the author adopts concerning the nature of the disease on which he treats; and, on the whole, we apprehend that the *moral* is more valuable than the *medical* advice. The latter is comprehended under the usual means of strenghtening the system by air and exercise, of preventing indigestion by a strict attention to diet, and in the occasional employment of tonic remedies.

Our general opinion of Dr. Trotter's work may be collected from the remarks which we have already made on it. Though it cannot boast of much value as a scientific performance, nor rank highly as a popular treatise on nervous diseases, it offers many just observations on prevailing customs, which are forcibly expressed, and well calculated to attract the attention of unprofessional readers.

Bos.

ART. VI. *A Short System of Comparative Anatomy*, translated from the German of J. F. Blumenbach, Professor of Medicine in the University of Goettingen. By William Lawrence, Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c.: with numerous additional Notes, and an Introductory View of the Classification of Animals, by the Translator. 8vo. pp. 520. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807.

A CORRECT system of comparative anatomy must prove an important acquisition to the sciences of physiology and natural history; and not only is the extensive and accurate knowlege of Professor Blumenbach peculiarly adapted for such an undertaking, but he has fortunately met with a translator who has considerably added to the value of the original. Mr. Lawrence has properly prefixed an introductory essay on the classification of animals; which is the more necessary for the English reader, since the arrangement and nomenclature, which are principally taken from Cuvier, are different from those that are generally adopted in this country. The five opening chapters treat on bones; the first on the substance of bone, and the others on the skeletons of the four great classes, the mammalia, birds, amphibia, and fish. To each of these chapters, as well as to all that remain, very copious additions are subjoined by the translator in the form of notes, consisting of matter taken from the most recent publications, or from English works which appear not to have been known to the original author.

Chapter II., on the bones of the mammalia, is peculiarly interesting, and contains a valuable collection of facts. Notwithstanding the great difference between the skeletons of these animals, a general analogy runs through the whole; and the remarks of Prof. Blumenbach, together with the additions of Mr. Lawrence, enable us to trace this resemblance through all its shades, and to point out the connection which subsists between the habits of the animal and its corporeal structure. The regular gradation which takes place through the different classes is continued up to the human species with so much nicety, that it has been a very difficult matter to establish the points which essentially discriminate the human body from that of the animals which are most similar to it. — In this chapter, we meet with many curious circumstances in confirmation of this resemblance: so that it would appear that nearly all the supposed peculiarities of man, as far as the shape of the skeleton is concerned, have been detected in some of the species of the ape; and in many of these points, such for instance as the outline of the head, the European differs more from the Negroe, than the latter from the orang-

autang. On this subject, we shall lay before our readers the remarks of Mr. Lawrence on the *Os intermaxillare:*

'The want of the *os intermaxillare* has been regarded as a chief characteristic of the human subject; as one of the leading circumstances, which distinguish man from other mammalia. That this bone is really wanting in man must be allowed, notwithstanding the doubts of VICQ D'AZYR. The well-known transverse slit, behind the alveoli of the incisors in the human fœtus, would form a very slight and remote analogy between the human structure, and that of animals: and, when we consider, that the superior or facial surface of the maxillary bones, so far from being marked by any suture, does not even bear a slit like that of the inferior part, it must be put entirely out of the question.

'That all other mammalia possess this bone is not quite so clear, as that man has it not. The exceptions occur in the quadrumana. In addition to those which the author has stated, it may be observed, that the head of an *orang-outang*, in the HUNTERIAN MUSEUM, which possesses all the other sutures, wants those, which separate the intermaxillary bone: that TYSON did not find this bone in his specimen of the animal, which was very young, (see his *Anatomy of the Pigmy*,) and that it did not exist in a cranium, which was delineated by DAUBENTON. I have also seen the crania of other monkeys, where the other sutures were all perfect and distinct, which did not possess this bone.'

The same observations apply to the teeth; which in the orang-outang are nearly similar to those that belong to the human species, while they differ considerably from those of every other animal in their shape and position. Perhaps in no part of the corporeal frame can we more immediately trace the relation of means to ends, than in the organs which serve for the mastication of food; and they have accordingly been always considered by naturalists as among the most essential parts in determining the species of the animal, and thence deducing the knowlege of its habits and general œconomy. The work before us contains a valuable collection of facts and observations on this subject; and the translator has made some copious additions to the original, principally taken from the writings of Cuvier, Home, and Blake. Towards the conclusion of the chapter, we have a good account of the varieties which exist in the form of the extremities: in this instance, notwithstanding the apparent dissimilitude, a strict analogy may be traced; and even where we should least expect to meet with such a coincidence, we find the same number of bones, and the same kind of articulation.

After having gone through the account of the bony fabric of the different classes of animals, we proceed to consider the parts which serve for the different functions; and, beginning

with those which have obtained the denomination of *natural*, we enter on the description of the organs which serve for nutrition. We have it in our power to bestow on this part of the work the same commendation which we allotted to the preceding chapters: since it contains an interesting and well selected body of facts and observations; exhibiting many ingenious applications of the science of anatomy, to those of natural history and physiology. The varieties in the form of the stomachs of the different species of the mammalia are copiously treated, both by the author and the translator. We shall quote Prof. Blumenbach's account of the stomach of the ruminating animals, as a specimen of the perspicuous manner in which he describes a very complicated anatomical structure:

'The first stomach, or *paunch*, (*rumen, penula, magnus venter, ingluvies,*) is by far the largest in the adult animal; not so however in the recently born calf or lamb. It is divided externally into two saccular appendices at its extremity, and it is slightly separated into four parts on the inside. Its internal coat is beset with innumerable flattened papillæ.

'This is followed by the second stomach, *honycomb-bag, bonnet,* or *king's hood,* (*reticulum, ollula,*) which may be regarded as a globular appendage of the paunch; but is distinguished from the latter part by the elegant arrangement of its internal coat, which forms polygonal and acute-angled cells, or superficial cavities.

'The third stomach, which is the smallest, is called the *manyplus,* which is a corruption of *manyplies* (*echinus, conclave, centipellio, omasum*): it is distinguished from the two former, both by it form, which has been compared to that of a hedge-hog when rolled up, and by its internal structure. Its cavity is much contracted by numerous and broad duplicatures of the internal coat, which lie lengthwise, vary in breadth in a regular alternate order, and amount to about 40 in the sheep, 100 in the cow.

'The fourth, or the *red,* (*abomasum, faliscus, ventriculus intestinalis,*) is next in size to the paunch, of an elongated pyriform shape, with an internal villous coat like that of the human stomach, with large longitudinal rugæ.

'The three first stomachs are connected with each other, and with a groove-like continuation of the œsophagus, in a very remarkable way. The latter tube enters just where the paunch, the second and third stomachs approach each other; it is then continued with the groove, which ends in the third stomach. This groove is therefore open to the first stomachs, which lie to its right and left. But the thick prominent lips, which form the margin of the groove, admit of being drawn together so as to form a complete canal: which then constitutes a direct continuation of the œsophagus into the third stomach.

'The functions of this very singular part will vary, according as we consider it in the state of a groove, or of a closed canal. In the

first case, the grass, &c. is passed after a very slight degree of mastication, into the paunch, as into a reservoir. Thence it goes in small portions into the second stomach, from which, after a further maceration, it is propelled, by a kind of antiperistaltic motion, into the œsophagus, and thus returns into the mouth. It is here ruminated, and again swallowed, when the groove is shut, and the morsel of food, after this second mastication, is thereby conducted directly into the third stomach. During the short time, which it probably stays in this situation between the folds of the internal coat, it is still further prepared for digestion, which process is completed in the fourth or true digestive stomach.'

To the above statement Mr. Lawrence has subjoined, in a note, a description of the peculiar apparatus belonging to the camel, by which it is enabled to take in a large quantity of water, previously to its passage over the deserts:

'The peculiar structure of the stomach in the *camel* and *lama*, which enables these animals to take at one time a sufficient quantity of water to last them for two, three or more days, and thereby renders them adapted to inhabit the dry and sandy deserts, which constitute their natural abode, has been entirely omitted by the author. The fluid, which they drink, is deposited in numerous cells formed in the substance of their first and second stomachs, by strong bands of muscular fibres crossing each other at right angles. It should seem that the animal has the power of closing these cells, by the contraction of those fibres which form the mouths of the cavities; or of expelling the contained fluid by putting the other portions of fibres in action.

'This cellular structure is found in two parts of the first stomach; and it occupies the whole of the second. It was found in a dead camel, that these cavities would hold two gallons of fluid: but they were probably more capacious during life, as the animal in question always drank six or seven gallons of water every other day, and took more in the intermediate time. Mr. Bruce states in his travels, that he procured four gallons from one which he slaughtered in Upper Egypt.

'As all the food which the animal takes passes into the first stomach, the water of the cells in that part becomes turbid; but it remains perfectly pure in the second, where it resides in the greatest quantity; which circumstance accounts for travellers being able to drink it on an emergency. The muscular bands, which form the groove before described, are particularly strong; and by drawing the third stomach to the œsophagus, convey the ruminated food through the second, without polluting the water in its cells. Hence the food that has been macerated in the paunch must be sent back to the mouth directly from that cavity, without passing into the second stomach, as it does in the *cow*.'

The organs which serve for the exercise of the vital functions, for the circulation, and for respiration, are next described, and afterward those which belong to the animal functions. In the comparative view of the nervous system as it exists

exists in the different classes, we are again led to mark the circumstances which are peculiar to the human species; and we are the more particularly induced to direct our attention to this part, because it might naturally be expected that the superiority of the human intellect would be accompanied by some obvious dissimilarity of form or structure in the brain and its appendages. The difference is stated by Prof. Blumenbach to consist chiefly in the human brain 'possessing a much greater bulk in proportion to the nerves, which arise from it; and in its being much larger when compared with the cerebellum and medulla spinalis.' This subject is examined more at large by Mr. Lawrence, in an interesting note. After having observed that the opinion adopted by the older physiologists, that man has the largest brain in proportion to his body, is now found not to be in every instance correct, Mr. L. proceeds to remark that

'Sömmerring has furnished us with another point of comparison, that has hitherto held good in every instance: viz. that of the ratio, which the mass of the brain bears to the nerves arising from it.

'Let us divide the brain into two parts; that which is immediately connected with the censorial extremities of the nerves; which receives their impressions, and is therefore devoted to the purposes of animal existence. The second division will include the rest of the brain, which may be considered as connecting the functions of the nerves, with the faculties of the mind. In proportion then as any animal possesses a larger share of the latter, and more noble part; that is, in proportion as the organ of reflection exceeds that of the external senses; may we expect to find the powers of the mind more vigorous and more clearly developed. In this point of view man is decidedly pre-eminent: here he excels all other animals that have hitherto been investigated.

'All the simiæ, says Sömmerring, are placed far behind man in this respect. Although the brain in some instances, particularly among the smaller kinds, which have prehensile tails, is larger in proportion to their body than that of the human subject; yet a very large share of that brain is required for the immense nerves, which supply their organs of sense and mastication. Let us remove that portion of the brain, and a very small quantity will remain.

'The researches of the same author on animals in general have led him to conclude, that the quantity of brain, over and above that which is necessary for a mere animal existence—that part, in short, which is devoted to the faculties of the mind, bears a direct ratio to the docility of the animal; to the rank which it would hold in a comparative scale of mental powers.

'The largest brain, which Sömmering has found in a horse, weighed 1lb. 4 oz. and the smallest, which he has seen in an adult man, was 2 lb. 5½ oz. Yet the nerves arising from the former brain were at least ten times larger than those of the latter.'

Our boundaries will not permit us to enter more at large into the contents of this volume: but the specimens which

we have given will enable our readers to form their own judgment respecting its merit, and this decision must be favourable. The only circumstance, to which we are inclined to offer any objection, is the interruption which is caused by the present arrangement of the text and the notes; and the additional matter which Mr. Lawrence has furnished is so considerable, as to make us regret that he did not new-model the whole, and incorporate his materials with those of the original in one regular series.

Bos.

ART. VII. *Tales of the Passions;* in which is attempted an Illustration of their Effects on the Human Mind. By George Moore. 8vo. pp. 415. 9s Boards. Wilkie and Robinson. 1808.

THE present publication is only the first of an intended series, the design of which is best explained by the author himself:

'In presenting these tales to the public, it appears to me highly necessary, that the design, views, and sentiments with which I compose them, should be candidly acknowledged, and clearly explained.

'In the first place, then, I must confess, that the general outline of my plan is taken from Miss Baillie's Series of Plays, in which the delineation of one of the stronger passions of the mind forms a subject for a tragedy and a comedy. During my perusal of the above work (from which I received considerable pleasure and satisfaction), it occurred to me, that a similar mode of illustrating the passions might be pursued in a series of moral tales, founded on domestic events, and rendered interesting by an appeal to those feelings which are universally experienced by all ranks of society.'

We are also informed that it is Mr. Moore's intention to comprise a single tale in every volume; an arrangement which will bind him down to no precise rules in either the time or the order of publication.

Of this first volume, the subject is the passion of Revenge, and the tale is intitled 'The Courtezan;' a title which we disapprove, since the word, being altogether foreign, is not applicable with propriety to that unfortunate class of females in England, which it is meant to designate in Italy. We object still more strongly to the frequent use of the same word throughout the tale; it confounds the character of the work, which is purely domestic; and it gives an air of affectation which the author should have altogether avoided. As to the story itself, it is very singular, is generally well-told, and in many parts is extremely affecting. Something mysterious and awful envelopes the circumstances which compose it: but the interest would have been (in our opinion) stronger, if we had

had been left in the dark respecting the previous events which actuate the conduct of Lucy and Montalbert; and if we had been introduced at first into the family of the reformed Mandeville, and had accompanied the ill-fated Edward into the world and through the scenes of extravagance and vice into which he is plunged, without any more insight than he himself possessed, into that horrible and systematic plan of revenge to which he falls a victim.

Montalbert and Mandeville were school-fellows, and companions at college; the former was distinguished for superior talents as much as for an excess of sensibility, the latter was only a gay and thoughtless libertine; yet with this diversity of character, a strong intimacy is formed between them, for which we are doubtful whether the author very satisfactorily accounts. In progress of time, Montalbert becomes attached to, and marries, a woman whose habits are by no means congenial with his own, and which hurry her into a round of dissipation very unsuitable to his notions of domestic happiness. He, nevertheless, loves her with enthusiasm, and constantly anticipates the period of her reform and the realization of his own favourite schemes. While under the influence of this delusive hope, Mandeville becomes the inmate of his house, is saved by him from the ruin which his imprudent life had nearly brought on his head, and repays the obligation by seducing his friend's wife. Montalbert, yielding to the influence of his now vicious sensibility, abandons all his connections, deserts his infant child, changes his name, and flies his country. During a residence of many years in Italy, he plunges into every species of debauchery in order to drown reflection; and he returns to England, in middle life, completely altered both in person and character, burthened with remorse for time ill-spent, with carelessness and contempt of existence, and with the piercing recollections of blighted happiness and black ingratitude. In this state of mind, he meets at the theatre with Mandeville; who, during the period of Montalbert's absence, had married, reformed, and lived in the apparent enjoyment of every domestic comfort. He sees him surrounded by his family:—his soul sickens at the view; and from that moment a dark and indistinct idea of *revenge* takes possession of his heart, which his accidental meeting with "the courtezan," —an unfortunate creature who had formerly been seduced and deserted under circumstances of peculiar aggravation by this same Mandeville,—afterward confirms and directs. They enter into a league for the purpose of destroying the happiness of him who had ruined theirs; and they fix on the young Edward, who had been educated by him as his nephew,

and whom he loved as a son, for the first victim of their horrible designs. At last, when, through a long series of guilt and misery, the pitiless Montalbert has finally led this youth to the foot of the gallows, he discovers that it is his own son whom he has so sedulously ruined, and thus *Revenge* recoils on itself.

This interesting and original outline is filled up with considerable art, and in a manner which displays both knowlege of character and vigour of imagination. The two principal actors in the tragedy, with the same motives for action and objects of pursuit, are discriminated from each other with great judgment and propriety. The *revenge* of Lucy (the courtezan) is a fixed and unalterable principle of her soul, from which she never swerves in thought, word, or deed; and her mind is unchangeably bent on accomplishing the ruin and misery of him who had rendered her miserable. In proportion to the state of purity and innocence from which *he* had hurled her, in proportion to the ardour of that affection which *he* had betrayed and slighted, were the blackness and the violence of her present hatred. Montalbert's sense of injury, though deep and poignant, had long ceased to be an *active* principle, till circumstances happened to revive it: these circumstances had still the power of kindling it into a temporary madness: but it required their constant recurrence and the perpetual admonitions of his more determined ally, to lead him on to the fixed and regular perpetration of crimes from which every better feeling of his soul revolted.

The character of Mandeville is drawn with not less truth and feeling. In the apparent possession of every-thing that can render life desireable, blest with affluence and health, with the respect of the world, with the love of a virtuous wife, with a daughter worthy of all his affections, and a son in whom—though only his son by adoption—he sees with parental fondness the promise of every future excellence, Mandeville nourishes in his bosom the "worm that never dies," the secret tortures of remembered guilt.

It is difficult to make any extracts from a continued narrative, though parts of it are indeed abrupt and disjointed, without injury to the subject: but we shall transcribe one short scene, which we must introduce by a few prefatory sentences.

Montalbert, under the feigned name of Osborne, had worked himself into the implicit confidence of poor Edward, and abused that confidence in order to seduce him imperceptibly into error and vice; when Edward's supposed uncle, who residing in the country, had heard only some indistinct rumours of the misconduct

misconduct of his young élêve, became nevertheless sufficiently alarmed to undertake a journey to London, for the purpose of inquiring into the circumstances, and reclaiming him before it was too late. Some time after his arrival, Edward, whose good opinion of his seducer remained unaltered, was desirous of introducing him to his uncle's acquaintance: but Montalbert eluded the proposal, conscious that the sight of Mandeville might raise such emotions as would discover his person and betray his designs. Finding himself unable to prevail, Edward at last resolved to effect *by surprise* the desired interview:

'A few days after this determination, he walked with him through the Park, and mentioned his intention of calling at the house of an acquaintance, near Grosvenor-gate, where it was probable he should not be detained above a few minutes, and earnestly requested he would accompany him. Montalbert, after some hesitation, consented. Edward, without any questions to the servant who *answered the door* where they knocked, hurried him through the hall of the house into the first apartment which presented itself, in which was his uncle, Mrs. Mandeville, and Emma. The former was reclining on a sofa; he had that morning been somewhat indisposed, a circumstance which was unknown to Edward: his wife, with anxious solicitude, was persuading him to take a jelly which she had purposely prepared; while his daughter was employed in adjusting his hair instead of his valet.

'The consternation and confusion of Montalbert, on his entering the room, were too powerful to be concealed; they neither escaped the observation of the family nor Edward, who now almost repented of what he had done.

'Montalbert having been introduced to the ladies, and with some difficulty persuaded to take a seat, Edward expressed his concern for the indisposition of his uncle, and apologized for the abruptness of his intrusion.

"My illness, Edward, is a mere trifle," answered Mr. Mandeville; "a slight cold, which I am unconscious how I have taken, and from which I hope I shall as suddenly recover. But these wives and daughters, Mr. Orborne, will be nurses; and yet," he continued, while he grasped the hand of Mrs. Mandeville to his bosom, "it is almost a temptation to be sick, when such affectionate attentions are the consequences of our indisposition."

'Montalbert, who had already excused himself for keeping on his hat, under the plea of a cold in his eyes, now drew it still more over his face; his whole frame trembled with emotion; he answered the observations of Mandeville with an assent he was scarcely able to utter, while his thoughts were occupied in the consideration that he might have possessed such blessings but for the perfidy of him whom he now beheld in the enjoyment of them. *His* beloved wife might thus have soothed the anguish of a sick bed; his forsaken boy have rendered him those little attentions so dear to the heart of a drooping parent. What were now his expectations in looking forward to the close of his

his existence? Not even a friend to speak comfort to his soul. Alone, forsaken, and deserted; his bosom torn with guilty remorse, and his anticipation of the future even more horrible than his retrospection of the past.

'These reflections in the mind of Montalbert, although hurried and confused, were experienced in their full force. In a trembling and faltering voice, he declared himself suddenly taken ill. His appearance was a sufficient confirmation of his assertion. Mrs. Mandeville and Emma offered every assistance; his voice failed him, he was unable to refuse their attentions but by motions, which evinced even a dislike that they should approach him. Seizing the arm of Edward, he abruptly quitted the apartment, and had no sooner gained the street than he beckoned a hackney-coach, which stood near, and, disengaging himself from his companion, hurried into it. Having ordered the man to drive to the house where he resided, he coldly waved his hand in refusal to Edward's offer of accompanying him home.'

Mr. Moore evidently possesses powers which are calculated to raise him to distinction in this walk of literature: but he must learn to bestow more pains on some of the subordinate merits which it should display. In his present work, the composition is not polished nor accurate, and we meet even with such palpable violations of grammar and of propriety as *he had mistook,—she had fell,—who, awoke by the noise,— she was* G 2 *dressed very neat,— Montalbert having seen to the draft,—her father need not,* &c. &c.

Meri.

ART. VIII. *Thoughts on the Effects of the British Government on the State of India:* accompanied with Hints concerning the Means of conveying civil and religious Instruction to the Natives of that Country. By the Rev. William Tennant, LL.D., late Chaplain to his Majesty's Troops in Bengal. 8vo. pp. 294. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

FROM a perusal of this volume, we are led to conclude that Dr. Tennant is well acquainted with the past history and the present state of India. It is the object of his work to prove that the subjection of that country to British domination has been a blessing to the natives; and that the servants of the company have in general acted meritoriously, and furnished no grounds for those imputations with which they have been so frequently charged. The parties have in Dr. T. an able advocate, who excites in his reader a strong bias in favour of his clients; and it must be owned that the greater number of those, who return from India to their native country, appear to have as lively a sense of honour and integrity as any of their fellow subjects: while they usually excel

excel those of equal rank, in comprehension of views and liberality of sentiment.

Though he blames some parts of Lord Wellesley's conduct, yet on the whole Dr. Tennant highly commends it; and the general style of his performance is such as confers great weight on any side in favour of which its author gives his suffrage. He is doubtless a competent judge; and if he be subject to any bias, he very successfully conceals it.

In the first section, Dr. T. makes observations on the late campaigns in Asia, and the rapid extension of our Indian Empire. According to him,

'To enumerate the victories obtained by our arms in India, and to describe the advantages resulting from them will hereafter form the most pleasing part of the British historian's duty: but to render his narrative useful, he will have another task to perform no less necessary: It will be his province to record the errors that may have been committed, and the disasters that have followed them: Where this is neglected, history ceases to be instructive, and posterity to improve. On this principle the future narrators of our late campaigns in the East may probably remark, that they have been almost uniformly attended with too lavish an expenditure. Although the Mahratta war continued only for the space of a few months, and the hostilities against Tippoo were concluded with almost equal dispatch: yet a debt has been contracted upon the treasury of upwards of thirty millions sterling. Had these operations been protracted by any unfortunate event, or had they even lasted the usual period of such immense undertakings, success would have been doubtful, or rather unattainable, from the impossibility of commanding a sum adequate to their expence. In India, where the rate of interest is so enormous, and where war is an occurrence unhappily so frequent, its expence must be reduced to a scale more nearly corresponding to the resources of the country: In the progress of increasing territory, and of annually accumulating debt, our career in Asia is rapid and dangerous; nor is it difficult to foresee that abyss of destruction into which even a series of victories must inevitably lead.

'The future historian may, perhaps, be credited for impartiality, should he hazard another remark, that the treaties of peace with the Mahratta Chiefs, which had been begun and concluded almost in a single day, were at once imperfect and precipitate. A subsidiary treaty had been almost uniformly concluded between the Company's Government and all the neighbouring Princes of India, as soon as the necessity of their condition might induce them to engage in that measure: the Nabobs of Oude, and of the Carnatic, the Nizam, and the Peshwa had been all successively engaged to maintain a subsidiary force in their own dominions. Experience had proved that this was the most effectual of all measures for the checking their appetite for continual war, and for preventing them from plundering their own subjects; the expedient at the same time has been found to supply pay and maintenance for the large additions that were made to the Company's

pany's native army. In forming the late treaties with the Nagpore Rajah, with Scindia and Holkar, this important stipulation was omitted, though it had been proposed before the commencement of the war, and though experience had so repeatedly demonstrated it to be the most effectual means of securing the permanency of peace. Should a future war be afterwards found necessary to check the aggressions of these chiefs, the occurrence may be justly ascribed to the want of a subsidiary force in their territories, so necessary to disclose, and to check their hostile machinations in their commencement.' —

'In the short space of six years, more had been done by Marquis Wellesley for the destruction of French influence in the East, and for the enlargement and security of the British dominions, than ever had been accomplished by any Governor of India. Throughout that extensive country he left no Europeans to discipline the native armies, nor any independent powers under whom they could rally, in order to controul the British Government. Under his administrasion, that government, for the first time since its establishment in Asia, had the opportunity of pursuing plans of improvement without the opposition of an open foe, or the controul of a rival power.'

Dr. T. strongly impresses his readers with the vast importance of India to the inhabitants of this country; and, as we agree with him in opinion that the durability of our empire there will depend on the beneficence and justice with which our government is administered, we have no other wish than that the charges preferred against the late Governor-General may be fully considered, and that he may be rewarded according to his deserts.

The college at Calcutta falls under the censure of this author; and if we are not convinced by him, we admit that deference is due to so fair and able a writer, who has had opportunities of ascertaining its value on the spot. What *it was* we are not able to state: but we are confident that such an institution might be rendered the blessing to India which Lord Wellesley represented it to have been.

In repelling the charge of misconduct which is so often made against the servants of the company in India, Dr. Tennant observes:

'Every body of men so numerous as that which contains the civil, military, and judicial servants of the Honourable East India Company, must include individuals of almost every description of character. This numerous class of British subjects, who have so successfully supported the interest and honour of their country in Asia, have with more justice been characterised, as humane, liberal, and brave. A monthly allowance of pay, ample but not extravagant, has afforded the Honourable Company a choice of its servants, not enjoyed in the foreign settlements of any other nation. Hence in all the branches of

of their service are to be found many of the highest rank, and the most liberal education. The civil department, in particular, has long been an object of ambition to the younger members of the first families in Britain. This circumstance has been productive of many advantages. Men of hereditary rank and high expectations in Europe, have been found unwilling to forfeit these objects in the East, by acts either of meanness or insubordination. Their duty as magistrates, judges, and officers, has generally been discharged without that selfish and illiberal attention to small gains and pecuniary advantages which is so apt to characterise the agents of a mercantile body. They have accordingly been distinguished by acts not of mere charity only, but of munificence rarely to be found in any rank of life.

'The malignant climate of India, and the uncertainty of life in a region where it is so frequently cut off by disease, has produced among some individuals, that spirit of extravagance, which in Batavia the same cause has created among the parsimonious Dutch. This spirit, however, is more than counterbalanced by the habit of saving, monthly, a small portion of their allowances, to enable them to revisit their native country, and there to support their advanced life and declining years: a period which all are equally desirous to spend in the midst of their relations, and in the bosom of their native land.

'This is by far the most universal and steady principle of action, among the servants of the India Company; and if they are to be characterised generally by any one prevailing quality, it is by an economy in their expenditure, which is sometimes seen to degenerate into parsimony. In number the servants of the Company are little inferior to the civil and military establishment of Great Britain; by blood or connection they are allied to almost every family in the United Kingdom; their savings ultimately rest there, to the annual amount of nearly two millions sterling; and for this immense sum nothing is advanced but the expence of their early education: they have adventured on a remote and dangerous service, where they have hitherto successfully upheld the honour and the interests of their country; the comfort and safety of such a respectable class of our countrymen forms of itself no mean inducement for attempting the moral improvement of our native subjects in India.

'It belongs to that generosity, which has hitherto been characteristic of Britons, not merely to acquire distant possessions, but to civilize and improve them. They at the present moment command more extensive territories in Asia, Africa, and America, than ever fell under the dominion of any ancient or modern nation. It is of high importance that they feel and respect the duties of a situation, in which they are to controul the destinies of so large a portion of the human race. It is perhaps of no less importance, that the individuals entrusted with so perilous a service should be protected by the police of the country, and the moral discipline of the natives.

'In circumstances to which there are attached so many arduous duties, and so much responsibility, it is consolatory to reflect, that by the very constitution of human affairs, the intercourse of nations

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tends almost invariably to their improvement. There is a steady progress to civilization among communities much connected together, which is often concealed from themselves, and which arises not so much from the policy of government, as from the original constitution of human nature itself. To this it is owing, that amidst all the complaints that have been made against the British government in India, so many solid, though unforeseen advantages have been mutually conferred on both countries.

'From this source the Asiatics have derived the arts of printing and of ship building, as well as the practical use of the mariner's compass. If Europe has derived from the East the benefits of inoculation, the latter has received in return, the Jennerian improvement of the discovery, by which so many thousand lives are annually saved. If we consider each of these improvements separately, it will be found to imply important changes in the condition of society. Taken together they assuredly constitute the most solid benefit that one portion of the human race has ever conferred upon another.'

Section V. relates to the means of civilizing the Hindoos; and here the reasons drawn by the author from the ravages and desolation which prevailed in all parts of Hindostan, previously to the epoch of British ascendancy in that country, strongly favour his hypothesis respecting its beneficial influence;

'In many provinces of India the mischiefs of anarchy were prolonged till they had ruined every branch of industry, and become almost incurable: in some of the native governments they continue to the present hour; for in them you still behold the peasant, when he goes abroad to the market, or to resume his labours in the field, arming himself with a tulwar, a spear, or a bludgeon, and trusting for his protection against violence and rapine, more to the strength of his individual arm, than to the police of his country. According to the testimony of Golam Hossein Khan, it is customary, in some districts, for the person who has been absent from his friends, to offer sacrifices to the gods for his safety, if happily he return safely to his family *. It may justly be questioned, whether in any instance, the annals of nations can present to our contemplation, a great community plunged into an abyss of anarchy equally deep and gloomy as that by which India was overwhelmed after the decline and fall of the Mogul empire. That fertile and extensive region, became, in fact, an *hereditas jacens*, open to the intrusion of the first occupier; and sunk into such wretchedness, that almost any change must have proved an alleviation of its distress.'—

'What ought to be most decisive in this argument, is the experience and conviction of the natives themselves. They never have denied the benefits of European protection, nor have withdrawn from the advantages arising from a more regular police: thousands, on the contrary, have laid aside their swords and spears, and crowded

'* Vide Seer Mutakhereen, a work in modern Persian.'

to

to their settlements. Now experience uniformly guides this people, not political, nor speculative opinions. Had European vicinity been hurtful it would have been avoided; for what else has prompted them to court it, but the security of life and property, which it has been found to yield. The clamour against cruelty and provincial oppression, which has often sounded so loud through the whole of Britain, has not once been heard in Bombay, Madras, or Calcutta. These cities have continued uniformly to thrive and increase under their new masters, in spite of all the arguments that have been urged to prove that it was impossible. The last-mentioned city, in particular, from having been lately a village, so unimportant, as to be wholly passed over in the assessments for the Imperial revenue, as stated in the Ayeen Acbery, has in about half a century arisen to a population of upwards of half a million of souls; a rapidity of increase seldom to be met with in the records of any country; and never equalled under any of the native governments in Hindostan.'

In the subsequent detail, curious information and just observations occur, which agree with preceding statements, but which our zealous advocates for proselytism are too apt to overlook:

'Although our Hindoo subjects are patient and submissive in their general deportment to superiors, yet are they most averse to every change: this peculiarity, when considered conjunctly with the vast disproportion of their numbers to that of their conquerors, ought to afford a most impressive warning against adopting speculative systems, or indeed attempting any sudden innovation on the general spirit of the government. That this remark has not been lightly hazarded, or gratuitously introduced, is amply proved by several facts, recorded in the annals of our own government in India: these facts have but too plainly demonstrated, that the submission of the natives has certain limits beyond which it cannot subsist, and that even the patience of the Hindoos themselves, may be put to a test which it is unable to bear. It has been long known, that the prejudices of the higher classes of the Hindoos, regarding the preparation of their food, and dressing of victuals, has prevented them from undertaking sea-voyages of any length or duration. The extension of the British territories among the islands, and through the remote parts of the continent, has at the same time rendered it necessary to transport the native troops by sea to meet the different exigencies of the service. By allowing the natives themselves to prepare their water casks, and store all their own provisions, this prejudice, so incompatible with military duty, has been surmounted, or gradually weakened; a distant expedition by sea was therefore proposed, on a late occasion, to a certain seapoy corps, which at first seemed to assent to the proposal without any apparent murmur. A few of the higher ranks, however, on reflection, were of opinion, that it endangered their rank, by its incompatibility with their religious maxims. These men, by stating their scruples to their comrades, in the absence of the officers, influenced the determination of the

the rest of the battalion. The European officers, who were ignorant of what had passed, and deeming the assent of the regiment universal and complete, gave orders for its embarkation on the appointed day. A determined resistance ensued; the seapoys flew to their arms, and took possession of a rising ground, where, as they refused all communication with their officers, they were under the necessity of reducing them by force of arms. In the contest many were slain on both sides; and what is most remarkable, a native regiment was employed to execute this severe military vengeance against their countrymen, a service which they performed with fatal promptitude and alacrity. A more scrupulous regard to their religious prejudices has, since that period, almost entirely surmounted their objections to naval voyages; and many regiments, consisting of all the different casts, have lately been employed on maritime expeditions, without any prejudice to their future rank, or violence to their religious scruples.

'The native Hindoos, of all ranks, must have their food dressed and prepared by a person belonging to the same religious cast; and during the time of dinner (almost their only meal), the greater part of their cloathing is cast off and laid aside till the conclusion of their refreshment. On actual service, and in the presence of an enemy, this custom is peculiarly repugnant to European notions of discipline. Accordingly, the officer in command of our field army in 1798, issued, in orders, that such of the seapoys as were employed as guards and picquets to the camp, should not be permitted to undress either in preparing or in eating their meals. This prohibition, which appeared so necessary to the safety of his camp, the General found it necessary to withdraw in a few days, for during that short period many of the best of the native soldiers were found to have deserted the service. So inveterate are the prejudices of the native troops regarding this point, that no means have yet been devised to remove this unmilitary practice from a seapoy camp.'

Censuring as becomes him the business of Vellore, the author concludes this part of his work with these sensible and important admonitions:

'When we reflect that the whole number of Europeans employed in all the departments of the service throughout that vast empire, does not amount to a thousandth part of the natives by whom they are surrounded, the impropriety of wantonly irritating their feelings must appear abundantly striking. The government of such a multitude, is merely that of opinion; an opinion of the general equity and moderation of the rulers. The moment when this opinion shall be destroyed, and the general detestation of our troops excited against us, will assuredly be the last of the existence of European rule in India. Such facts, well authenticated and recent, give lessons that cannot be misunderstood: nor is it possible to avoid the inference to which they lead: they strongly warn us against all rash and untried experiments among the natives of Asia. They militate so powerfully against thwarting their prejudices, even in apparently trivial instances, that every wanton interference with them should

not merely be avoided, but the authors of them should be compelled, to make an atonement to the natives, by becoming themselves the objects of the severest reprehension and punishment.'

We wish that we were able to follow Dr. Tennant through the accounts which he gives of the obstacles to the improvement of the natives, and his plans for overcoming them. They reflect equal credit on the extent of his information, and the beneficence of his views; and they suggest hints which well deserve the particular notice of those who are destined for India, or who have any influence over its affairs. He directs our attention to three great objects; the extinction of the unceasing wars between the native princes; improvement in the tenure of land, by granting a more certain interest to the cultivator; and the introduction of a better mode of cultivation.

Dr. T. observes that the obstructions, which arise from the political and religious institutions of the Hindoos, will only give way in consequence of the gradual diffusion of knowlege; and he states that among the natives a strong disposition prevails to learn our language, of which he advises the encouragement by all possible means.

With regard to the unsuccessful attempts of the European missionaries, this sensible writer remarks that

'They ought at least to have the effect of clearly demonstrating the unfitness and impropriety of the means employed: they ought to convince the reflecting part of mankind, that before the influence of true religion can be felt by the natives of India, we must reverse the order of proceeding, and begin the work hereafter, not by haranguing the multitude, but by teaching the youth—by increasing their knowledge, and improving their understanding. The zeal of the present age seems to have revived; its contributions are large; and its effects will, perhaps, soon be renovated and strengthened in the East. May we not hope to find fewer missionaries, and a greater number of tradesmen, mechanics, and school-masters hereafter established in India; or are we for ever to pursue that plan of speculative doctrine, without discipline, which has for two hundred years proved wholly fruitless and ineffectual, and to abandon, or overlook the humbler and more laborious efforts of teachers, which hardly, in one instance, have been disappointed?

'This proposition ought no longer to be deemed either visionary or of doubtful advantage: the establishment of district and parochial schools, has proved in Europe the most successful method of communicating information, and what is still more valuable, moral principles to the great body of the people. If this establishment has proved the most effectual remedy against *ignorance*, *vice*, and *mendicity*, in every country where it has been carefully supported; does it not follow, with the irresistible force of an experimental truth, that we must resort to the same measure in India, before we can expect, I

do not say their conversion, but any permanent amelioration of their condition, or valuable accession to their moral and religious knowledge?'

While recommending the formation of schools in India, Dr. T. observes:

'Happily for the execution of this measure, the natives have no aversion to commit their children to the tuition of Europeans; they are rather ambitious that their offspring should acquire the accomplishment of reading and writing the English, though a foreign language, as the means of enabling them to prosecute successfully some lucrative branch of trade, and of introducing them as clerks and agents into the employment of the British. An Hindoo of rank will not, it is confessed, allow his children either to eat or sleep in the same apartment with Europeans, but he is known to permit them freely to remain at a day-school, which for the above named branches of education is sufficient.

'It is asserted by persons practically acquainted with this subject, that the desire of the people after education is so strong, that several have at present, with much expence, placed their children under the tuition of Europeans; and that there are many more taught by such of the natives themselves as understand the English language. Where neither of these means of instruction can be afforded, there have been many instances of spelling-books, and copies for learning to write, being purchased by such as have supposed that they might acquire these branches of knowledge by their own private application.'

On the subject of procuring instructors to carry into effect this beneficent plan, the author judiciously and humanely adverts to the facility and the policy of deriving adequate assistance of this kind from the sons of Europeans by native women. This class of human beings, already numerous and annually increasing, has for some time excited attention, from the consideration of a difficulty in procuring them employment; since, by the present regulations of the Company, they are debarred from the service of government in any capacity, civil or military; and while they are abandoned by their progenitors on one side, they are excluded by their Christian education from the society of the other. Their education, however, Dr. T. thinks, points them out as the most fit instruments for the instruction of the natives; and he is sanguine in his ideas of the success which might long since have attended, or which may still crown, their efforts, in comparison with the result of two hundred years of 'haranguing the ignorant multitudes, by missionaries hardly more intelligent than themselves.'

The passages which we have extracted from this work will enable the reader to appreciate its value, and to form a just notion of the views and accomplishments of its intelligent and benevolent

benevolent author. We are not acquainted with any production, of similar bulk, which imparts information relative to India, of equal extent and importance with that which is comprized in the volume before us.

We trust that the testimony of a respectable divine, every way so well informed, on the futility of the plans of employing missionaries, and his proposal of substituting for this showy system the efficient method of teaching the Indian youth the elements of knowlege, will carry with them the weight to which they are so well intitled, and be rendered operative by those in whose hands power is vested. Let missionaries be superseded by schoolmasters, and let European charity no longer waste itself in unprofitable efforts, but be directed to reward the unostentatious labours of the instructors of Indian youth.

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ART. IX. *Essays on the Natural History and Origin of Peat Moss*: the peculiar Qualities of that Substance; the Means of improving it as a Soil; the Methods of converting it into a Manure; and the other economical Purposes to which it may be made subservient. By the Rev. R. Rennie, Kilsyth. 8vo. pp. 233. 5s. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable; London, Murray.

EVERY man, (as Sterne says,) when he bestrides his hobby-horse, rides it most hobby-horsically. Mr. Rennie, therefore, may plead precedent for galloping away on his poney, *Peat Moss**, at a furious rate; and though we have no right to keep him out of a bog of his own seeking, we may be allowed to say *Cavete* to our readers, in order to prevent them from floundering with him. Never did a man estimate his

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'* As the original Celtic name *mos*, (says Mr. Rennie) is descriptive of the origin of peat, I have preferred it, and still am determined to retain it. I know that Dr. Walker says, that peat is a word used in Scotland and in the north of England; that, till of late years, it has seldom been used by any English author: this to me is of little importance; nor shall I attempt to prove, that it was used by Leland in his Itinerary, as early as the year 1712, and by Dr. Hans Sloan about the same period.

'Granting that it is a Scotch word, it is a word universally understood in Britain; and when we speak of peat moss, the meaning is equally obvious, as when we use the word peat earth, which is not in itself descriptive, or the word *turbary*, which is of foreign derivation.

'As peat is descriptive of the distinguishing quality of that substance, inflammability, and moss, of its origin or situation, I think it preferable to retain it.'

hobby-horse more highly than this reverend gentleman; and if we may credit him, the best thing that we can all do is to get *en croupe* with him, and ride away as fast as we can: for know, gentle reader, that the mosses of Great Britain are capable of adding the vast sum of 300,000,000l. sterling to the national capital. How is this proved? you will ask. Let Mr. R. answer the question:

'In Cambridgeshire alone there is not less than 150,000 acres of waste unimproved fen. By a moderate improvement, these might be made to yield at 10s. per acre 75,000l. Cambridgeshire is only a seventieth part of England and Wales. If the above results be multiplied by 70, the number of acres that lie waste, may be 22,351,000 in these kingdoms alone. At a moderate rent of 10s. per acre they might yield 10,000,000l. and at 30 years purchase this would add 300,000,000, sterling to the national capital!'

The author, with a display of modesty, calls this an ideal calculation: but we pronounce it to be no calculation at all. Cambridgeshire is not a fair sample of English counties with respect to the quantity of unimproved moor or fen; and if it were, 150,000 multiplied by 70 will not give 22,351,000. If Mr. R. knew that his calculation was incorrect, why did he insert it? Was it for the sake of raising a splendid vision before our eyes, of opening in imagination at least "Paradise in the wild," and of making Mexico and Peru sink in comparison with a Peat-Moss?

Precisely in the same style, when Mr. Rennie would ascertain the quantity of vegetable matter which a prostrate forest would yield, he takes the largest oak which was ever found in a peat-bog or moss, (viz. the oak of Hatfield,) supposes trees of this vast size to stand thick, and thus forms a result adequate to his purpose! In a philosophical treatise, we were not prepared for such arithmetic.

As far as facts for the elucidation of his subject are concerned, Mr. R. has the merit of being very indefatigable: but he makes too much parade, and is more diffuse than is necessary. The natural history of Peat Moss has not been so entirely overlooked by philosophers as he supposes; nor do we perceive any wonderful discoveries effected in his Essays. Many pages are filled, to prove that forests abounded in the North of Europe previously to the Christian æra; that mosses occupy the place of these forests; and that the destruction of these forests furnished the materials for the formation of moss. Degner's and Dr. Anderson's objections to the author's hypothesis are examined: but, after these difficulties have been put to the test and pronounced to be imaginary, the substance of

them seems to be left untouched; for at the end of the first essay, which occupies more than 100 pages, we arrive at this conclusion, which will not be controverted, 'that the ruined forests of the north of Europe have laid the foundation of many of our mosses, and that on that foundation nature builds her work.' If nothing more than this was meant to be established, Mr. R. might have spared himself much trouble; since it is a fact well known that mosses are aggregated around subverted forests: but the question to be ascertained is, how far the trees found in them have contributed to their formation by the dissolution of their bark, alburnum, twigs, &c. Forests, either standing or prostrate, may, in a neglected country, by interrupting the passage of water, have collected vast quantities of vegetable matter around their trunks and stems, and have furnished a pabulum for the growth of aquatic plants. As these have annually decayed, a soil for fresh plants of the same species may have been formed; and by this natural dam, water which once ran off might flow back on places once dry and sound, submerging other forests and the works of man, such as Roman roads, &c. extending the moss by degrees over a large district.

Trees, thus overwhelmed and immerged in a soil saturated with moisture, will to a certain degree decay: but the quantity of matter produced by their conversion to earth does not appear sufficient for the formation of that great thickness of soil, which is to be found in many peat-bogs. Another hypothesis, therefore, is necessary to be sought; especially as Moss, when dug, is known to renovate itself without the aid of a succession of forests falling into decay: other agents playing their part independently of any contribution from lofty oaks, beeches, &c. All persons who have any knowlege of peat-bogs must have remarked this circumstance; so that Dr. Anderson's notion *, if it be not new, is not altogether so ludicrous as Mr. R. would represent it.

In the second essay, the author comes more to the point. Here aquatic plants are put in requisition, and marshalled in long and formidable array. The renovation of Peat serves, in our judgment, more than any other circumstance, to ascertain

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* Dr. Andserson's idea that Peat is a growing vegetable, *sui generis*, is certainly erroneous, for it is not produced by one but by many plants. Yet his suggestion is very correct that we are as little authorized by the trees found in Mosses to assert that they were produced by or from the decayed substance of these trees, as to maintain on finding flies in amber that amber is produced from decayed flies.

its origin, and to explain the phænomena of extraneous substances discoverable in Mosses. By its growth and gradual accretion, it becomes, to use Mr. R.'s words, 'of all devouring monsters the most dreadful, for ploughed fields, large trees, loaded boats, men and women and the largest animals, houses, nay streets and whole cities, have been swallowed up in its all devouring jaws.'

As the second essay seems more immmediately to explain the point at issue, we shall state the several heads of inquiry which it embraces:

'I shall endeavour to shew, (says the author,)

'I. That many mosses, when dug, are renovated; and then point out.

'II. What is requisite to this renovation. I shall,

'III. State some facts to ascertain the time required for this purpose:

'IV. Point out the aquatic plants which furnish the materials:

'V. Shew that the same aquatic plants still flourish in lakes and marshes:

'VI. Prove that many lakes and marshes have been converted into mosses by the growth and decay of these plants:

'VII. That these plants may be traced still in an organised state in moss, through all its depths. I shall then endeavour,

'VIII. To ascertain the distinguishing qualities of these plants.

'IX. I shall attempt, on this hypothesis, to account for the various appearances moss assumes; for the vast depth to which it sometimes reaches; and the different situations in which it is found.

'Lastly, I shall state some general conclusions.'

On the important subject of renovation, we shall extract some of the facts recorded in the third section:

'Degner says, he was informed by the old inhabitants of credit, that ditches not too wide nor deep were filled anew with excellent turf, in 70, 80, or 100 years; but that this operation was much more rapid in a slimy than in a sandy soil.

'He mentions, too, that it is a well known fact that a ditch 10 feet wide by 7 feet deep, is often so filled with aquatic plants, in 10, 20, or 30 years, that men and cattle may safely pass over it. He says, that though the bottom be loose and liquid, it is solid on the surface, and that in an age or two the whole would be ripened into turf.

'M. de Luc has been at great pains to ascertain the period requisite to the renovation of moss. He has stated a variety of facts with this view. He mentions, "That Mr. Findorf assured him, that the pits dug in Duvel's moor were in a few years filled up with aquatic plants. That, in *thirty years* these were converted into a firm, spongy substance. That the solid surface of this, at the end of that period, nourishes heath and other ligneous plants that grow on the adjacent moor,"—

'The

'The Earl of Cromarty states, that some mosses grow up in a shorter time than others. This assertion is founded on his own experience; he was an eye witness of the fact. His words are:

"I have observed that pits which have been dug since I *remember*, have grown up again with new peats; and that, too, sometimes *oftener than once* in the same pits."

'That peat moss is renovated to a considerable depth seems therefore unquestionable: that this process does not require a long period, but is sometimes accomplished in an age or less, seems equally probable: that it has taken place in many moss pits in this parish, I am fully convinced.'

To the objections which arise against Mr. R.'s hypothesis from the extreme depth of certain mosses, (which are found to be from 20 to 50 feet thick,) he replies that the site of all these deep mosses is in vallies; and that alluvion alone may account for their depth, which is however increased by the rapid growth of aquatic plants and the accession of moisture.

The general results from this inquiry into the origin of peat moss are, that it has a vegetable origin; that it is composed of ligneous or aquatic plants; that regions now covered with this substance were formerly arable lands, forests, and lakes; and that mosses, under favouring circumstances, may be formed in much less time than we in general suppose.

Mr. Rennie has certainly the merit of having accumulated a variety of particulars, connected with the natural history of the curious substance which he undertakes to investigate; though many of them rather relate to the convulsions to which the surface of this globe has, at different periods, been subject, than to the actual formation of moss. We hope that in his future essays he will be less diffuse; and it is but justice to add that he is himself sensible of this defect in the present volume, and humbly apologises for his style as loose and desultory: but, if he were aware of this circumstance, it is obvious to ask, why he did not revise his MS. before he sent it to the press? A broad way is open for writers, between the extremes of tiresome prolixity and obscure brevity.

Mo-y.

ART. X. *The Fall of Cambria, a Poem.* By Joseph Cottle. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1808.

IT is to be lamented that those portions of history, which are best calculated to inspire the noble enthusiasm of independence and national liberty, should at the same time abound with the most melancholy examples of triumphant oppression and unavailing resistance. No sooner are our feelings strongly excited in favour of an heroic chief and a

gallant people, struggling against unprincipled ambition for the native rights of man, than we are compelled to weep over the sacrifice of undisciplined and unsuspecting courage to a superior degree of refinement in the military art, to the practised subtlety of courts, or to the weakness and treachery of hollow friendship. Without recurring to the volumes of antient history, the truth of the observation may be proved from a slight review of some leading events that have befallen our own island. The same page records the glorious efforts of Caractacus in defence of British freedom, and his ignominious appearance at Rome before the tribunal of Claudius; Vortimer fought, only to be overpowered; and the independence of the country, arrayed on the side of Harold, was laid low by the Conqueror at the fatal battle of Hastings. If we extend our inquiry to modern times, how many dreadful examples of a similar destiny, — the reward of equal courage exerted in the same noble cause — may be drawn from the disgraceful history of Europe during the last twenty years! Let us hope, in the present juncture, that profligate oppression has for once been betrayed by long success to its own ruin; and that Spain, though honourably distinguished as the first, will not be the only country that sheds as bright a lustre over the age in which we live, as that which was derived by Athens from the day of Marathon, or by Swisserland from the arm of Tell.

The poem before us was surely intended to excite the feelings of Englishmen against the invasion of this country so long threatened by France. Yet we observe a want of decision in the language employed in speaking of the views of Edward, and a gloss thrown over his whole conduct, which may seem too much like an apology for an unprovoked attack on the weaker by the stronger power. If he was justified in subduing Wales by a hostile army, for the purpose of 'raising our isle in the scale of nations, by combining her scattered sons,' (vol. 1. p. 8.) and of 'uniting in one great brotherhood Cambria and England,' (ib.) we have no right to censure Napoleon for endeavouring, by the same forcible means, to join the whole of the great *western family* in the same bonds of unwilling union. We cannot be suspected of the illiberality of accusing Mr. Cottle of any design to further the views of our great enemy: but we wish to shew, by a strong illustration, how valuable an advantage he has lost in departing from the high ground of national independence, and keeping the interest of his readers suspended in the trembling balance of political calculation. The truth of history not only authorised but required him to represent Edward as an

invader,

invader, an usurper, the enemy and oppressor of an unoffending people; while Llewellyn was a patriot prince, whose personal greatness was indissolubly linked with the freedom and glory of his country. Mr. Warrington's animated history has done much more justice to both their characters, than the verse of Mr. Cottle; who, if he should plead the national prejudice of Englishmen as a reason for softening the atrocities of an illustrious English monarch, ought to have selected some other subject as the groundwork of his epic poem.

Our readers will not stand in need of much information respecting the *fable*, or story, of the Fall of Cambria. It consists entirely of the events of the last campaign against that injured country. Edward marches his army to Chester; and there, 'ere food relieved nature's long abstinence,' he makes a long speech to his assembled chieftains on the propriety of conquering Wales. They all shout their approbation: but the Archbishop of Canterbury proposes conciliatory measures, and is permitted to attempt negotiation with Llewellyn. At this moment, Warwick arrives, with information that Eleanor de Montfort, betrothed to the Welsh prince, has been captured by the English, and sent to Gloster. Edward, fearing to encounter the temptation of her charms, in another long speech desires that she may remain there;

> And 'now, Barons and bold knights,
> *Still human*, we partake our *food* and rest.'

The Archbishop's remonstrance with Llewellyn, as might be expected, widens the breach between the hostile monarchs; and the Cambrian hero succeeds in destroying Gloster Castle, but not till his bride has been conveyed away by Warwick. The book which describes Edward's entrance into Wales is principally occupied with a long parley between him and an old beldame, who rushes towards him 'with all the speed of *tottering five-score*' and sings him a doggrel song, equally void of meaning in itself and useless to the course of the narrative. The strong holds of Wales fall successively, after various combats and sieges, into the hands of the English; of whom a detachment, commanded by Talbot and Venables, conquer Mona, and murder the bards, then assembled at a religious festivity. This act of cruelty shocks the generous nature of Edward, who orders both the perpetrators to be hanged, and produces repentance and a return to duty in the mind of David, the brother of Llewellyn, whom he had deserted. The war proceeds; Edward's queen, Ellen, anxious for the safety of her lord, embarks at Chester, and lands, fortunately among friends, on the coast of Wales, where she is almost immediately brought to bed of a fine boy; and Eleanor de Mon-

Monfort, who was travelling under the protection of Warwick, from Gloster to the camp of Edward, is surprised by Llewellyn in a castle which is captured by him. The Cambrians, at length confined to the mountains of Snowdon, entrench themselves in Dolbadarn, pursued and surrounded by their enemies. The conflict is not long delayed; prince David, by his rashness, causes the loss of the advanced guard; the rest of the forces are dismayed; and Edward slays Llewellyn. —Here we should think the detail might have been allowed to end: but a twenty fifth book is added, for the sake of introducing what Hume justly calls "a vulgar story;" and Edward, after having obtained a promise from the Welsh nobility, to acknowlege the government of a *native* prince, tells them that his own wife has been seasonably prolific, and receives their oaths of allegiance as representative of the little Edward. On the very field on which Llewellyn is weltering in his blood, his loyal subjects are delighted to submit to his invader; and Lhyrarch, the only survivor among the bards, is appointed poet laureat at the court of England.

This story is diversified by *description*, *reflection*, and *episode*; and in the first and the last of these accessories, the author is occasionally far more happy than in any other department of his poem. The day on which the English troops began their march from Chester is thus painted:

'It was a glorious morn. The sun on high,
With many a floating cloud of liquid gold
Cheer'd the beholder. Silent was the air.
The leaves were sleeping in their hour of joy,
Whilst the gay swallow, darting now on high,
Now skimming the smooth Earth and wantoning,
In the satiety of happiness,
Just stirr'd, with gentle motion, the lull'd heart,
And made it more alive to sympathies
That dived into the soul, caught from the scene—
The tranquillizing scene of all around.
Each baron brave, as parts of his own self,
Marshall'd his vassals. O'er th' extended plain,
Ranks follow'd ranks, glittering with armour fair,
Spears and steel chaplets, falchions burnish'd bright,
Halbert and bill and battle-axe, and bow,
Gorget and gauntlet, whilst the sheaf behind
Teem'd with the barbed dart. So brave a host
Never had England sent to scourge her foe,
Spain, Gallia, Brabant, Cambria, or, 'mid hills,
Where Caledonia's hardy sons abode.'

We shall contrast these lines with a description of night:

'The

'The dead of night is come!
And such an hour, so merciless and harsh,
Might pall the stoutest heart. Not ev'n a ray
Glimmer'd in Heaven, whilst the descending rain
In floods and cataracts, deluged the earth.
The march begins. David, his veterans leads,
And Edwall follows. Down the mountain's side,
Slowly they pass, and now have reach'd the vale,
Thro' which conflicting streams borne from the hills,
By sudden tempests, foaming, roar along,
Whilst the loud winds, in their vindictive rage,
Revel among the forests, and, augment
The horrors of the hour, by conflicts fierce
With unseen forms, and all terrific things.
The sable elements in ten-fold gloom
Now wrap themselves, portending ruin dire,
And the stupendous movements, Nature holds,
Amid Earth's central caves, when bellowing forth
She wakes the Earthquake. Blasting with its glare,
The lightning from the mountain summit bursts,
And, what a roll of awful majesty
Dwells 'mong the hills! each peal ascending still,
In more magnificence of solemn sound!'

Some of the *episodes*, particularly the friendship of David and Edwall, and the loves of Montalto and de Clifford's daughter, possess considerable interest: but they are too long for quotation entire, and cannot easily be abridged.

The strain of *reflection*, in which Mr. Cottle has generally indulged, does not strike us as favourable to the effect of an heroic poem, being a series of common-place, but unseasonable, invectives against war in general. Virgil ranks among the most blissful inhabitants of his Elysium the heroes who died fighting for their country:

"*Hic manus ob patriam pugnando funera passi.*"—
"*Omnibus his niveâ cinguntur tempora vittâ.*"

When, however, a brave and hardy warrior, who had been disfigured and disabled, and had even lost an eye, in the spirited execution of his duty, receives a fatal wound in defence of Cambria, Mr. Cottle not only relates his death with perfect *sang froid*, but traces his progress to perdition in a future world with some little complacency. Old Cynan, the gallant though unsuccessful warden of Denbigh-castle, obtains but cold comfort in his last moments from the following apostrophe:

'Warrior! thy doom, at length,
Is hurried on. Thy barren days are pass'd,
And, O the future!—Thou wilt never dwell
With the Disciple of the Nazareen!

Heaven

Heaven were no Heaven to thee. Thou shalt behold,
Far off, beyond the deep and rayless gulf,
Impassable, that bounds the Evil World,
Up, mid sun-blazing thrones, the Patriarchs,
Prophets, and Holy Men, lights of the world,
Long doom'd to toil—storm-beaten mariners,
Their haven there, and their abiding rest!
But there, thou shalt not come!'

This is worse than the Heathen's prospect, and more cheerless than the melancholy descent of Hector's shade to the realms of everlasting night:

Ὀυ ποτμον γοοωσα, λιπεσ' ἀδροτητα και ἡβην.

and on Christian principles, we may always ask those who affect to dispose of the eternal destiny of their fellow-creatures, under any circumstances whatever,—"But who art thou, that judgest thy brother?"

The *characters* of this poem are not intitled to particular attention. At the greatest fault we have already hinted, when we stated above that Edward and Llewellyn are made equally prominent, and are equally worthy of admiration and applause. They are alike, and precisely in the same degree, enlightened statesmen, excellent patriots, brave knights, faithful lovers, good Christians, and accomplished gentlemen. The wife too of the one, and the betrothed mistress of the other, are everything that ladies ought to be; except that Eleanor de Montfort appears to have allowed her heart to be too deeply impressed by the amiable qualities of her protector Warwick. Prince David's defection, his strong indignation against his brother, his awakened love for his country, and his repentance, are described with some force and spirit. The humorous characters are not sustained with much liveliness; and we had yawned over a tedious twice-told tale with melancholy patience, when we discovered that the author had kindly wished to contribute to our amusement, and expected to have convulsed us with immoderate laughter, as the story teller is constantly designated *par excellence* 'the merry knight,' and his story is applauded as 'a laughsome thing.' It is evident, indeed, that Mr. Cottle has taken Falstaff as the model of his wit: but, instead of imitating the quaint gaiety and diversified merriment of Shakspeare's master-piece, he has been satisfied with copying into an epic poem the absurd extravagance of his boastful lies, which, though "gross and palpable as the father of them," never fail to cheat the penetration and impose on the credulity of our English Justinian. It is not much attempted to discriminate Pembroke, Mortimer, and the rest of the English Earls; while

while Anarawd, Howell, Mervyn, and the rest of the Welsh worthies, except the unfortunate condemned Cynan, are for the most part exactly the same.

The *speeches* may properly form an object of distinct examination in an epic poem: in the present, though they are long and numerous, we shall pass them over, in mercy to our readers, to Mr. Cottle, and to ourselves, with the single observation that they are fit only to be delivered in this *present* parliament of the united kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland!

Of the odes, or lyrical pieces, which are occasionally inserted, the least exceptionable is Eleanor's epistle to her lord: but we greatly mistake if we did not hear it sung, a few years ago, at Vauxhall Gardens.

The principal ground, however, of our animadversion on this work, is the *style* of its composition. That an Englishman born, who has lived to a certain age with Englishmen, and has even been considerably versed in English writing, could bring his ears to tolerate such uncouth phraseology and perverted construction, as we find in every page, is to us astonishing. From a well-educated foreigner, who, after having studied the language only for three months exclusively in Paradise Lost and the Night Thoughts, should undertake to produce an English poem in blank verse, we should not have expected any thing more harsh and unnatural. For example:

> 'The cloud, that overcast the firmament,
> And now o'er Cambria, like a sable star
> Hung ominous, not unobserved drew near.' (Book 2. l. 1.)

It is less surprising that a cloud which overcast the firmament should not be observed, than that a cloud should resemble a star, and a star be black.—We recommend the following description of dismay among Talbot and his companions, occasioned by the approach of Llewellyn:

> 'His chieftains turned away,
> Each to the other whispering, with bent head
> And finger raised. There *Consternation poured*
> *Copious libations.*' (Book 8. l. 367.)

We may offer the reasoning of the chancellor de Frankton with his king, as a specimen of legal acuteness and subtilty:

> "Perchance, thy recollection, like a flood,
> In unappointed moment and strange hour,
> May not return. It is the tide's low neap.
> Anon, thou wilt remember and acquit
> De Frankton of all crime. Well dost thou know
> By intellects, acute and logical,
> My evidence is of the higher kind;

The

The positive is mine. I recollect,
And thine, the negative. Thou merely feels't,
A passiveness."

Under this head, we ought not to omit the ingenious device by which Mr. Cottle has varied his catalogue of the English forces, from Homer's mode of enumerating the nations that fought on each side in the war of Troy. It would have been tame and common to say that they came from all parts of England, and still more dull to run through a list of the counties to which they severally belonged. Our poet has therefore adopted the novelty of reciting the names of all the rivers in the kingdom, since the inhabitants must have come from a greater or a less distance from some of these streams. The harmony of the lines is of course delightful:

'From Coquet, Wensbeck, Derwent, Tyne, and Wear,
From Esk and Eden, Petril, Wampool, Irt,
Ken, Ehen, Wyre, Ribble, and Alt, and Teese—
And Soar and Nen, and Hiz, Deben and Colne—
Axe, Bruce and Parret, Exe and Barle and Taw,
Plym, Tavy, Torridge, Tidy.' (Vol. I. p. 199, 200.)

Not contented with these and many more lines to the same *flowing* tune, the author gives us above twenty lines of old English names, without character or discrimination, among which scarcely three are repeated throughout the poem. His love of metaphor is unbounded; even *Sepulture* is personified as travelling in the *suite* of WAR, which allegorical Being may be regarded as the hero of the piece, much more justly than either Edward or Llewellyn. Some of the words most in request here have been seldom used by any other writers. It is common to talk of something invaluable, or beyond all price, but we do not remember to hear any one call 'a service *valueless*.' Again, when Llewellyn sollicits permission of Eleanor to *bathe* in the *music* of her soothing voice,

'Fair Eleanor *cast* an angelic smile
Priceless to him, the bless'd *recipient*.'

What is the meaning of

'heroic words
And bold and daring *amplitude of face*?'

What idea is conveyed by the assertion that

'Night, *in panoply and prime*,
Marshals her starry hosts sublime?'

and why did Mr. Cottle, who, it seems, has been lately employed on a new version of the Psalms, transfer to the aged Caradoc the undisputed offspring of Sternhold and Hopkins?

"May

" May thy mercy, Judge of all!
Never to their souls extend,
But confusion on them fall,
And perdition without end!"

Some words occur very frequently, which, if at all admissible, are far from being in general acceptation—*expectant*, *exultant*, *unshuddering*, &c. &c.: but the following simile will put the reader so completely in possession of all the author's peculiarities of style, that he may dispense with our making any addition to a list which swells beneath our hands, as we again turn over the leaves of the poem. The capture of Pembroke and Mortimer by David occasions this elaborate comparison:

' E'en like two oaks, each crowning the tall brow
Of *some adjacent* hill, spreading their limbs,
In proud defiance to the wintry blast,
Sole monarchs, *leagued* with *perpetuity*
Of self-existence, (as they *feign believed*
In the disdainful *aspect* of their *heart*,)
And *'mid* their lofty state, still *gazing* on
To unborn ages, prosperous, *all their own*;—
Till, in an evil hour, the whilwind's wrath,
Uptears their giant roots, and launches them,
Upon the winged fury of the winds,
Down to the subject vale, where they both meet,
Sad partners in misfortune and dismay!'

We observe a few faults in the metre; and the contiguous pages 14 and 15, in vol. 2d, present these two deficient lines:

' Nor slight, were the proud champion's meed.'
' Ralf, terror of surrounding lands.'

Punctuation, which is so necessary to the finishing of any composition, since on its propriety depends the due (or at least the *ready*) comprehension of an author's meaning by his readers, seems to be little understood by writers in general, and to be an object most unjustly neglected by them. Some persons run on their sentences to a great length, with few subdivisions of commas or semicolons, and a merciless paucity of full stops. Others, again, unjustifiably separate members of sentences which should be " lawfully joined together" in grammatical matrimony, and which " no man can put asunder" without injury to the sense and construction. Of this latter fault, Mr. Cottle has often been prodigally guilty. For example:—Fair Eleanor is represented as having pleaded with Warwick

——————' with such soft words,
For liberty, to pass, toward him she loved,
That, Warwick promised her, all she required;'

and as adding,

——— 'Vainly would I tell
The gratitude that rises in my breast.
The weakness of expression, till this hour,
To serve as vehicle, for the full heart,
Never, I knew.'—

This is what an old friend of our's was wont to call *stuttering in writing*.

Once more:

——— 'Warwick too, owns
That, braver than Llewellyn, never poised
The hero's spear.'—

Here, also, is a most insufferably ellipsis. What is the nominative to *poised?*

On the whole, we entertain great doubts whether the poetical fame of Mr. Cottle will receive any addition from this production of his muse.

Den.

ART. XI. *Lives of Cardinal Alberoni, and the Duke of Ripperda, Ministers of Philip V. King of Spain.* By George Moore, Esq. 8vo. pp. 150. 7s. Boards. Faulder.

NOTHING is so clear a symptom of the decline of a state, as the admission of adventurers and pretenders into offices of the highest trust, to the exclusion of persons distinguished by talents and every species of respectability. In such circumstances, the government sinks in consideration abroad, and loses the confidence and affection of its own subjects. When a ruler of this sort is forced on a people, they suffer the greatest insult of which despotism can be guilty; and when the people themselves willingly submit to, nay hail and applaud such treatment, they present an infallible indication of an alarming national degeneracy. In such a state of things, cajolery will have the advantage over ability; a minister will not be estimated by his solid qualifications, but by his condescensions; steady systematic conduct is ridiculed; measures of glare and show, however ruinous, are preferred; and chicane, trick, and assurance seize the helm, while modest worth and merit are condemned to inaction and obscurity.

The two celebrated adventurers who are pourtrayed in this volume call for the pencil of a master. Though the subjects be not pleasing, they are of high interest; if they reflect no dignity on the artist, the labour is inviting from a conviction of its great utility; and if we do not contemplate talents, service, and worth, we behold dexterity, intrigue, and success.

The

The originals require an experienced professor, but the pallet on the present occasion has been seized by a tyro. He claims, however, gentle treatment from the critic; and while the execution shews a hand little familiar with the pencil, the conceptions and attempts to manifest the performance of one who might have been an artist.

First in order of time as well as in all other respects, stands the political churchman, who raised himself from the situation of the meanest subject of a petty prince to be the chief minister of one of the leading powers in Europe. The resting points in this vast flight are here distinctly traced and exhibited to view. It probably cost the wily and daring adventurer more effort to reach the stage from which so many others set out, than to place himself on the pinnacle which held him up to the view of the age in which he lived, and to that of future times. The conciseness and clearness, with which the early part of his career is here narrated, induce us to give the account of it in the author's own words:

'Julius Alberoni was born in an obscure dwelling, at one of the extremities of the city of Placentia, March 30, 1664.

'His parents were in the meanest circumstances; his father earned his livelihood as a gardener.

'From his earliest childhood, Alberoni had one object perpetually in view. In the pursuit of this, no difficulties discouraged him, no affronts or indignities repulsed him; nothing so mean to which he would not stoop; no experiment so unpromising, which he was not prepared to try.

'He first engaged the notice of a parish-priest, as a forward officious boy —This priest took him into his service, taught him to read and write, and the rudiments of the Latin tongue.

'He next received instruction from some Barnabite Friars, who were pleased with an air of quickness and docility about him.

'His attention to ingratiate himself with his protectors had so good an effect, that he was appointed ringer of bells to the cathedral.

'Here he came under the observation of the Canons, who, seeing him busy every where, and studious to recommend himself to every one, testified to him some degree of good-will. The wily youth was not without distinguishing eyes. He discovered those who possessed the ear of the Bishop, and took care to be most assiduous about them.

'He determined to become an ecclesiastic, and by the influence of the persons who befriended him, was admitted to the minor orders. He received the tonsure, that is, has the form of a crown shaved upon his head; which denotes a person set apart for ecclesiastical functions.

'His next step was to receive the order of priesthood:—but here he found some difficulty.

'Where a life of idleness invites so many to become Priests, Bishops are not willing to ordain those who are likely to become a burthen to the church. This likelihood strongly attached to Albe-

roni. However, he found means to overcome the objection; and a priest he was ordained.

'Being now an ecclesiastic in due form, he went to seek his fortune. He quitted the place of his nativity, and repaired to Ravenna.'

For his introduction to the court of Philip V., Alberoni was indebted to the Duc de Vendome.

'When Vendome went to take the command of the army, he left Alberoni to watch any intrigues which might be set on foot against him in his absence, trusting entirely to his zeal in counteracting them.

'But zealous gratitude was no part of Alberoni's character. He remained at Madrid, observing the cautious management of one, who never on any occasion thinks of thwarting or offending power, whose eye is perpetually intent on all the tremblings of the balance, and who is at all times ready to throw himself into the scale that shall appear to preponderate.'

On the death of this nobleman,

'Alberoni had sought the acquaintance of his countrymen at Madrid, and connected himself with those who might promote his interest. He contrived to get a footing in the house of the Marquis de Casali, the Parmesan Minister. The Marquis having occasion soon after to return to his country, left the affairs of the Duke his master, in his hands.

'He was now therefore regarded as envoy of Parma; and in this capacity, thought himself authorized to go as far as Pampeluna, to meet the new Queen. He presumed, no doubt, upon her favour, as a principal instrument in procuring her elevation. Her first compliments, however, were not very encouraging:—"I have heard, (said she) you are an egregious rascal." He bowed, flattered, and quickly soothed and conciliated her.'

Another circumstance greatly favoured the rise of this son of Fortune. It happened that

'The greater part of the household who had accompanied the Queen from Parma, left her at the frontier. The Princess of Piombino, to whom she was much attached, proceeded with her as far as Madrid; but observing the vicissitudes to which favourites are subject, she had the good sense to prefer happiness at home, to the precarious splendour which invited her.

'The Queen, deprived of those in whom she had been accustomed to place confidence, gradually and insensibly delivered herself over to the counsels of Alberoni. As her countryman, as in a great degree the author of her fortune, as representing the Prince her uncle, he had many avenues to her favour.'

The way to the premiership now became easy to so experienced a master in the arts of intrigue. As the conduct of the lucky adventurer in that high post is the subject of general history,

history, we shall not follow Mr. Moore through this part of his narrative. While he admits the extravagance of Alberoni's measures as a minister of foreign affairs, he adverts to plans and proceedings for internal improvement, which seem to have been overlooked by those who have excluded all light tints from the portraits of him which they have sketched.

From the period of his disgrace to the year 1721, the Cardinal was obliged to conceal himself: but on the death of Clement XI. in that year, he was invited to the conclave for the election of his successor.

'In this conclave, he had himself many votes for the papacy.

'The Pope elected, Innocent XIII. set him two years after perfectly at his ease, by declaring him absolved of all accusations.

'He had established his residence at Rome, and lived with much elegance and splendour.

'Persons commenting on this elegance and splendour, observed that so much money had not passed through his hands, without considerable benefit to himself; yet the praise of disinterestedness has been given to him, by writers no wise partial to his memory. He had literally nothing on setting out in life, yet at subsequent periods, he derived wealth from sources he might acknowledge.

'The money and jewels he was said to have carried out of Spain, did not appear on the examination at Narbonne, as has been related.

'While he resided at Rome, he corresponded with some of the most distinguished persons in Europe, both literary and political.

'Voltaire, in his life of Charles XII., paid him a number of compliments. He wrote the historian a letter of thanks, which was answered in that style of studied flattery, Voltaire never failed to offer up to the great:—The obsequious writer wishes to see him Pope.

'He was occasionally consulted in matters relating to the Spanish monarchy, and the interests of the Catholic religion.

'He often saw the Pretender, and more than once was useful in composing differences which broke out in his family; not always, however, to the satisfaction of the Pretend r himself, who, in some of his letters, heavily complained of his conduct.

'The eyes of the public followed him in his retirement, and plans of stirring and comprehensive ambition, were supposed working in his thoughts. It could not be believed, that so active a mind was entirely asleep.

'The story of the time was, that he sent a Mr. Bernier, whom he had formerly known, when in the service of the Duke de Vendome, to examine the cities and strong places in Turkey. Mr. Bernier, it was said, was three years executing this commission, in the disguise of a Turk.'

His latter years were spent amid the scenes of his early life, and were signalized by public works of great utility to the several places of his youthful residence.

'His conversation retained to the last, an uncommon portion of gaiety and vivacity. He spoke Italian, French, and Spanish, with equal facility, passing from one language to the other, according to the persons he conversed with. The political transactions of the time, were the ordinary subjects of his conversation, and he would illustrate and enliven his remarks with anecdotes of his own life. He frequently quoted Tacitus, and his quotations were always in the original.

'He died at Placentia, June 26, 1752.

'The greater part of his wealth descended to a nephew, Abbé Alberoni.

'Alberoni was low in stature, inclined to be corpulent. The expression of his face, was upon the whole ignoble. Yet there was a great deal of vivacity in his eye.'

We do not regard Mr. Moore's estimate of his hero's character as the most happy part of his biography: but from this remark we would except the following brief passage: 'Considering only what intellectual strength and vigour he may be supposed to have exerted, there is no doubt but the number and variety of his projects, with the industry he displayed while they were in agitation, indicate a mind above the common level, impatient of tame repose, kindling with the imagination of great objects, ambitious of astonishing mankind.'

Though the two personages who are the subjects of this volume widely differ from each other, yet so uniform is the style of the artist, that the general observations which we made on the execution of the first portrait will apply in a great degree to that of the second. Having attended so fully to Alberoni, we must refer to the work itself those who are desirous of appreciating the merit of Ripperda.

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ART. XII. *A Connected Series of Notes on the Chief Revolutions of the Principal States which composed the Empire of Charlemagne*, from his Coronation in 814, to its Dissolution in 1806: on the Genealogies of the Imperial House of Habsburgh, and of the Six Secular Electors of Germany; and on Roman, German, French, and English Nobility. By Charles Butler, Esq. Royal 8vo. pp. 296. 15s. Boards. White. 1807.

WE are warranted, we believe, in saying that situations of the first practice at the bar, and the posts which are occupied by our highest legal magistrates, do not call for more time, nor require a more intense and incessant exercise of the faculties, nor are encompassed with more anxiety, than the leading station in that nice, abstruse, and laborious branch of the law which the author before us indisputably

holds. It is not, therefore, without as much surprize as pleasure and profit, that we find ourselves so frequently called to notice his labours in departments which are foreign from his profession; labours which indicate superior judgment, nice discrimination, and extraordinary perseverance, and which uniformly impart rare and valuable information with characteristic neatness and precision. These repeated occasions are calculated to remind us of the remark of a celebrated modern historian, on the pre-eminent lawyer and scholar to whose superintendance and labours we owe the body of the Civil Law—"His genius, like that of Bacon, embraced as his own all the knowlege and business of the age." If we reflect on the great attainments which may be effected by habits of diligence, method in application, a judicious disposition of time, and a fixedness of purpose, united to an ardent desire of knowlege and the love of honourable fame, we shall be able to discern the causes of the vast distance which separates the drones of society, from those who acquire distinction among their cotemporaries and transmit their names to posterity.

No very long time has passed, since elementary treatises on physical and moral subjects were encumbered with tedious and elaborate refutations of the errors which, in former times, had prevailed in these branches of knowlege: but later writers have very properly dropped these discussions of rejected hypotheses, which distract the attention and impede the progress of youth, and have been contented to teach them those principles merely which are supported by facts and experience. A similar course in the line of history is pursued in this volume by Mr. Butler. He selects and prominently exhibits only those points and events, from which important consequences have followed: but while the results of successful researches are alone communicated, and the investigations and controversies which have led to them are omitted, the most approved works in which they occur are pointed out at every step.

In these notes, the reader will find traced with great distinctness the gradations by which the Popes raised themselves to that giddy height of power which they once reached, as well as the stages of their descent to their present humble level. It was not without reason that M. Koch* observed, *l'Histoire des Papes est celle de l'Europe entiére.* Ecclesiastical history, when it descends below the first four centuries, is a field rather for the statesman than the theologian; to the latter

* See our last Appendix, p. 509.

it is merely an accomplishment, while it is replete with useful instruction to the former; and it developes a policy more systematic and successful than any other that is recorded in the annals of the world. Mr. Butler appears to have been fully aware of its importance, since he has done eminent justice to this part of his subject; and while we feel grateful for the information which he gives, we equally admire his impartiality: — a fairness which is the more praise-worthy, because the learned and ingenious writer is one of those dreaded men, whom it was lately deemed so unsafe to render capable of receiving any marks of royal beneficence. This dangerous gentleman, however,—whom his sovereign, as the laws of Britain now stand, cannot constitute one of his legal advisers,—recognizes in the Pope only a spiritual chief, and treats his temporal power as having been merely incidental to his ecclesiastical authority.

With equal attention and care, Mr. Butler has set forth the circumstances which led to and attended the revival of the second empire of the west; has marked the progress of the papal and imperial authorities; has described their struggles and alternate successes; and has placed in a very clear if not in somewhat a new light, the controversy with respect to investitures, the disputes between the first and second orders, the formation of states, the rise of cities, the extension of commerce, the origin and progress of the prerogatives of princes, the privileges of sovereigns, and the rights of the third estates.

The subsequent passage brings before us the first stage which the Roman Pontiffs mounted, in their ascent to that vast power and influence which they exercised in the thirteenth century; and of which we now read the accounts with astonishment:

'St. Peter, the first of the Popes, had neither temporal estate, nor temporal power. During the ten persecutions, his successors acquired some moveable and immoveable property, for the support of the altar, and its ministers, and for the purposes of charity. The donation of Constantine is a fable; but his constitution of 321, by which he authorized churches to acquire and hold property of every description, by gift, testamentary donation, or purchase, is the real source of the wealth of the church. From him and his successors, the Popes obtained extensive possessions in Italy, Sicily. Dalmatia, France, and Africa. In consequence of their descendible quality from Pope to Pope, they were called the Patrimony of St, Peter. Other churches had their respective patrimonies, to which they gave the name of an eminent Saint of the district. Thus, the landed property of the church of Ravenna, was called the patrimony of St. Apollinaris; that, of the church of Milan, was called the patrimony of

of St. Ambrose; and that of Venice, was called the patrimony of St. Mark.—In this manner, the Popes became Owners of Houses and Farms.

'The laws of Constantine and his successors conferred on them, something like a right of civil jurisdiction. This was increased by the circumstances and temper of the times; and thus they acquired the Power of Magistracy.

'After Justinian had reconquered Italy, Rome was governed by a duke, who like the other dukes of Italy, was wholly subordinate to the exarch of Ravenna. Still, as the Popes constantly resided at Rome, their spiritual character, their talents, the use they made of them, and particularly, the sums of money spent by them in public and private charities, in support of the walls and fortresses of the city of Rome, and in maintaining troops for its defence, endeared them to the Roman people. This gave them considerable political influence in the city of Rome, and the adjoining parts of Italy. Their exertion of it was always useful, and sometimes necessary for answering the purposes of government; and thus the Popes became possessed indirectly, of Temporal Power.'

The Iconoclastic zeal of the Emperors of the East, and the ambition of the Lombard kings, brought together the Popes and the House of Pepin, and rendered it their interest to unite. Referring to the time of Pope Gregory, Mr. Butler observes:

'On the side of Pepin, the inglorious existence of the Merovingian kings had continued, and the mayors of the palace had exercised all the functions of royalty so long, that, excepting the right, nothing but the name of king was wanting to Pepin. On the side of Zachary, it was evident, that, without instant, powerful, and permanent protection, the pope and city of Rome must fall a prey to the kingdom of Lombardy. The protection which Zachary wanted, Pepin could grant: the right to the kingdom and the name of king, which Pepin wanted, Zachary could not confer; but, to a general belief, that Pepin possessed the former, and to his obtaining the latter, Zachary could contribute much. Their mutual wants produced a treaty of mutual assistance. In consequence of it, Pepin sent two confidential agents to the pope, proposing to him, as a case of conscience, whether, as in the empire of the Francs, all the Power of Royalty had been so long held and exercised by the family of Pepin, it was not proper, under the existing circumstances, that they should also have the name of king. The Pope pronounced that he, who had the power, ought to have the name of king. On receiving the pope's answer, Pepin called an assembly of the states at Soissons; he was unanimously proclaimed king and enthroned. He was crowned and anointed king by St. Boniface, the Bishop of Mentz, a prelate eminent for the holiness of his life; and, from the extent and success of his missionary labours, beyond the Rhine, called the apostle of Germany.'

Astolphus, King of Lombardy, having conquered the exarchate,

'Turned his forces against the city of Rome; and avowed his intention of making the Romans his subjects and compelling them to pay him a poll tax of a penny of gold. The pope applied to Constantine, the emperor of Constantinople, for relief; he granted him none, but ordered him to wait, in person, on Astolphus, to solicit the restoration of Ravenna, the exarchate, and the Pentapolis. The pope obeyed; but, being ill received by Astolphus, hastened into France. In his own name, and in the names of the clergy, senate, nobility, and people of Rome, he proclaimed Pepin and his sons, Carloman and Charles, patricians of Rome —— that is, exarchs, chosen by the Romans, with another name, and supposed to be subordinate to the emperor. In return Pepin granted to the Pope the city of Ravenna, the exarchate and the Pentapolis.

'Though Pepin had been crowned before by St. Boniface, he prevailed on the pope to crown him and his wife and his two sons Carloman and Charles, and to give them the royal unction, in the abbey of St. Denys. In granting his blessing to the people, the pope absolved them from their allegiance to the Merovingian family, and conjured them by St. Peter, with whose authority God had invested him, to maintain the crown in Pepin's family, whom God had specially chosen for the defence of the church and the holy apostolic see.'

In return, Pepin rescued the Pope from the danger with which he was threatened by the Lombard King, and made a formal grant of the exarchate and the Pentapolis to the Roman Pontiffs and his successors. 'From these gifts of Pepin,' says Mr. Butler, 'the temporal sovereignty of the Popes should be dated.'—He is equally founded in the observation that 'the Pope was subordinate to Pepin as Patrician, who in that character was again subordinate to the Greek emperor.'

Having put an end to the Lombard kingdom,

'Charlemagne confirmed to the pope and his successors, the donation made to him, by Pepin, of the lands of the exarchate and the Pentapolis, with the city of Rome, and the adjacent territory, and several other cities and provinces not contained in Pepin's grant: the pope confirmed to Charlemagne and his successors, the patriciat, with the right of nominating the pope. The Romans and the people of all the other territories, included in the grants of Pepin and Charlemagne, acknowledged the supreme jurisdiction of Charlemagne in all civil and military concerns, within the city of Rome, and the Roman territories. Still, however, Charlemagne recognized the Emperor of Constantinople, as his sovereign, for all his Italian possessions out of Lombardy.

'But, in this ambiguous and uncertain state, it was impossible things should long continue. It was obvious, that, however the recourse

recourse of the pope and the Romans to Pepin and Charlemagne might be excused or even justified, as a measure of absolute necessity, it would be considered by the Greek emperor, as an act of rebellion. This made it necessary for the pope and the Romans to place themselves beyond the reach of his resentment. A temporary defence of this kind they had in Pepin, while he lived; and it was continued to them by Charlemagne; but it behoved them to make it permanent; and this could only be done by electing a sovereign, and rendering the throne hereditary in his family. This being once resolved on, every circumstance pointed out Charlemagne as the only person, from whom and from whose successors, they could rely for the permanent protection their situation required.

'Long was the negociation, for this purpose, between the popes Adrian and Leo the Third, and Charlemagne. Finally, towards the end of the year 800, Charlemagne, at the pope's request, advanced to Rome at the head of his army. On Christmas day, while he was praying at the tomb of St. Peter, the pope, accompanied by the bishops, the clergy, the nobility and a numerous body of the people of Rome, placed on his head, a crown of gold, and the people shouted, "Long live Charles! the most pious, august, great and pacific Emperor! crowned of God! Life and conquest to him." The pope anointed him Emperor, and did him homage. The Emperor then took the following oath: "I Charles, Emperor, promise in the name of Jesus Christ, before God and the Apostle St. Peter, that I will always defend the Roman Church, against all, as far as God gives me strength and favour." Immediately, in imitation of the Greek emperor, he took the name of consul, and dated his acts from his own indiction. After a short time the Byzantine court acquiesced in his usurpation, and the limits of the empires were amicably settled.

'Thus, after an extinction of more than three centuries, the Roman empire in the West, was restored in the person of Charlemagne.'

The accurate and distinct geographical statements, with which we are presented in this volume, equally challenge praise with the perspicuous historical notices which they illustrate and connect; and our younger readers cannot take too much pains to conceive them clearly, and to impress them deeply on their memories. As a specimen of the merit of the work in this respect, we subjoin the author's account of the division of Charlemagne's empire between the children of Louis le Debonnaire:

'1. Lothaire preserved the title of Emperor, and the kingdom of Italy, with all the countries between the Rhone and the Saon, the Meuse, the Scheld, the Rhine, and the Alps.

'2. Lewis the German, took all Germany from the Rhine to the Oder, and the three cantons of Mentz, Spire, and Worms.

'3. There remained of the empire of Charlemagne, the part of France between the Scheld, the Meuse, the Saon, the Rhone, and the Pyrenees, and the Marca Hispanica, or the part of Spain between

tween the Pyrenees and the Ebro; these were assigned to Charles the Bald.

'Here, properly speaking, the Francic empire terminates. The territories allotted to Lothaire, received the appellation of the *Kingdom of Italy*; those allotted to Lewis the German, were called Francia Orientalis; those allotted to Charles the Bald, were called Francia Occidentalis; in time, the Francia Orientalis was called the *Kingdom of Germany*; the Francia Occidentalis was called the *Kingdom of France.* Till Charles the Bald, the Teutonic or German was the language of the court; in his time, the Romancic, afterwards called the French language, came into use'—

'From the skirts of the kingdoms of France and Germany, two new kingdoms arose,—the *Kingdom of Lorraine*, which comprised the country between the Rhine, the Meuse and the Scheld, or the modern Lorraine, the province of Alsace, the Palatinate, Treves, Cologn, Juliers, Liege, and the Netherlands:—and the *Kingdom of Burgundy*, divided into the Cisjuranan, or the part of it to the west, and the Transjuranan, or the part of it on the east, of Mount Jura. The former comprised Provence, Dauphiné, the Lyonese, Franche-comté, Bresse, Bugey, and a part of Savoy; the latter, contained the country between Mount Jura and the Pennine Alps, or the part of Switzerland within the Russ, the Valais, and the rest of Savoy.'

As Mr. Butler was aware that any praise of monasteries from his pen would, on account of his being a catholic, be liable to observation from the ignorant and the bigoted, he introduces a high though just panegyric on them in their first origin, from a Protestant of the communion of John Calvin, the venerable Mallet; and which must have arrested his preferment, if the late Syndics of Geneva had been as *good protestants* as the present English Chancellor of the Exchequer.—It has been said that the tramontane doctrines are held by the Irish Catholics, while it is understood that the opposite tenets are entertained by our English fellow subjects of that communion;—however this may be, the latter are certainly those of the learned writer before us.

Mr. B.'s professional knowlege enables him to state the question of Investitures with more clearness than most of the ecclesiastical historians. Speaking of the mode of investing the bishop elect with his temporal possessions, he observes:

'According to the law of tenure, no person was considered the lawful, or even the actual, possessor of the tenement, till he had taken an oath of allegiance to the lord from whom he held it, and till he had received from the hand of his lord a solemn mark, by which the property comprised in the grant was transferred to him. This invested him with the seizin or legal ownership of the property. The ceremony was usually performed by presenting the tenant with a bough, or a piece of turf, or some other symbol of the property.

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When a bishop died, his ring and crosier were transmitted to the prince. within whose jurisdiction his diocese was situated; on the appointment of his successor, the prince presented them to him, as a symbolical delivery of the temporal possessions of the see: the bishop delivered them over into the hands of the metropolitan, and received them back from him, as a symbol of the spiritual rights conferred on him by his consecration.'

The author's account of the right of nominating to Bishoprics is in itself interesting, but has been rendered more so by some late idle discussions in the daily prints. For many reasons, which this is not the place to state, we should advise our government to decline (if it be offered) that controul in the appointment of catholic bishops in Ireland, which the prelates of that country, and their brother the vicar-general of the Midland district, seem so much bent on refusing. In this conduct, we recognize rather the spirit of ecclesiastics, than the refined policy which once guided the court on whom they are dependent.—Mr. B. states that

'The right of nominating to Bishopricks was finally settled,—in Germany, by the Concordate of 1447, which confirmed the election of bishops to the chapters exercising that right;—in France, by the Concordate of 1516, which vested the nomination to bishopricks, and the collation of certain benefices of the higher class, in the kings of France,—in Spain, by prescription, repeatedly allowed by the popes, under which the kings have uninterruptedly exercised the right of nominating bishops,—and in England, by the charter of King John, recognized and confirmed by his Great Charter, and by the 25th of Edward the Third, Stat. 6. § 3, which gave up to the chapters the free right of electing their prelates; but that statute is virtually repealed by the 25th of Henry the Eighth, c. 7, by which the chapters, if they do not elect the person recommended by the king's letters missive, are subjected to the penalties of Premunire.'

In continuing his detail of the progress of papal aggrandizement, Mr. Butler observes that he has already noticed 'the gradual rise of the bishop of Rome, in his successive character of an unpropertied ecclesiastic,—of a trustee of some moveables and immoveables for the service of the church, and for purposes of charity,—of an owner of houses and farms,—of a magistrate,—and of a subordinate prince, with a considerable degree of temporal and territorial power and political influence.' We are next to see the Roman pastors attempt a bold and daring stride; and here let us follow the pen of the present author, who writes with a spirit and freedom on the occasion which could not be exceeded by any dissenter from the Roman church:

'The popes soon advanced a still higher claim: *In virtue of an authority which they pretended to derive from heaven, some of them asserted that*

that the Pope was the supreme Temporal Lord of the universe, and that all princes, and civil governors, were, even in temporal concerns, subject to them. In conformity to this doctrine, the popes took upon them to try, condemn, and depose sovereign princes; to absolve their subjects from allegiance to them, and to grant their kingdoms to others.

'That a claim so unfounded and impious, so detrimental to religion, so hostile to the peace of the world, and apparently so extravagant and visionary, should have been made, is strange:—stranger still is the success it met with. There scarcely is a kingdom in christian Europe, the sovereign of which did not, on some occasion or other, acquiesce in it, so far, at least, as to invoke it against his own antagonist; and, having once urged it against an antagonist, it was not always easy for him to deny the justice of it, when it was urged against himself. The contests respecting it were chiefly carried on with the German emperors. All Italy and Germany were divided between the adherents of the popes and the adherents of the emperors.'

The following passage must not be passed over, since it seems to assign the true origin and meaning of terms which occur so frequently in the annals of the middle ages:

'At the time, when these contests first commenced, the Guelphs of Altorf in Saxony, were among the most illustrious families in Germany. In several battles, in which a prince of that house commanded the Saxon and Bavarian troops against the emperor Conrad the third, the son of Frederick duke of Suabia, Guelph was the word of war with the former, and Weiblingen, the place where Frederick was born, was the word of war with the latter. Insensibly these words were used to denominate opposite parties; and by degrees all persons opposed to the emperor were called Welfts, and all his adherents were called Weiblingenites. These appellations continued to be used in the contests between the popes and the emperors, but the Italians softened them into *Guelphs* and *Ghibellines*.'

Gladly, if our means permitted, would we follow Mr. Butler in his equally perspicuous and impartial accounts of the events which induced the decline of the temporary sway of the Roman pontiffs. If the pretensions of the spiritual potentates shock our minds, and if their arrogance disgusts us, it must be owned that very many beneficial effects resulted from the exercise of their unlimited authority; which the narrow views of the Roman and the prejudices of the Protestant ecclesiastical historians, with the ignorance of civil historians of both communions, have occasioned them to overlook. We shall conclude this interesting head of the volume before us, with an extract which is not less consistent with the spirit of true philosophy than with historical accuracy:

'The Pope's temporal power, to all appearance, would have been rejected by the states which retained their spiritual obedience to the

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see of Rome, if, soon after the commencement of the reformation, an event, or rather a combination of events, had not taken place, which, for a time, supported the falling fortunes of the Pope's temporal power. After several vicissitudes of persecution and toleration, the Calvinists obtained a legal settlement in France, and began even to attract the favours of the court: the Roman Catholics naturally united in opposition to them. This produced one of the most celebrated events in history;—the league of France. Almost every Catholic in that kingdom entered into it; the house of Guise, an illustrious branch of the family of Lorraine, placed themselves at its head, and it soon found an active friend in Philip the second, the most powerful monarch of his time. The Guises descended from Charlemagne; they appear to have been attached by principle and inclination to the Roman Catholic cause, but probably would not have embarked their fortunes in its support, if, by doing it, they had not hoped to wrest the crown from the House of Bourbon; and to restore it, in their own persons, to the House of Charlemagne. On the other hand, Philip the Second was aware what a powerful enemy the House of Austria would always meet with in the French, if they were united among themselves: he strove therefore to throw France into confusion. This cemented the league. Something of the kind, though of a very inferior degree, took place in every state in christendom where there was a conflict between a Roman Catholic and a Protestant party. It is obvious how greatly the Catholic party stood in need of the countenance and assistance of the Court of Rome: this, for a time, preserved to the Popes their temporal power in the states who acknowledged their spiritual supremacy. The influence which this gave them made them venture on those enormities which now excite so much astonishment,—the bulls by which they absolved the subjects of Henry the Fourth of France, and our Elizabeth from their allegiance; their approbation of the massacre of St. Bartholomew, their concurrence in the league, their alleged blessings of the Armada.

'In proportion as Henry the Fourth triumphed over the league, and the Spanish party lost its ascendant in Europe, the Pope's influence subsided; so that at the beginning of the eighteenth century, little more than the *magni nominis umbra* remained to the Popes of that temporal power which at one time or other had shaken every throne in Europe.'

Of the miscellaneous interest and information which this volume imparts, we can find room for only one exemplification. In treating of the *Final Settlement of the Political Constitution of Germany*, Mr. B. remarks that 'it forms a body of which the Emperor is the head and the States are the members.'

'The States are divided into three classes,—the College of Electors, the College of Ecclesiastic and Secular Princes, and the College of Imperial Towns: this division was finally established at Francfort in 1580. Their meeting is called a Diet. The Emperor

is

is seated on a throne; the electors of Mentz, Bavaria, and Brandenburgh, on his right hand, the Electors of Cologne and Saxony, and the Elector Palatine on his left, and the Elector of Triers opposite to his person.

'The Ecclesiastical Princes are seated on benches to his right; the Secular Princes are seated on benches to his left; the Deputies of the Imperial Towns are seated on two benches which cross from the right to the left; one of these benches is filled by the Deputies from the Imperial Towns on the Rhine, the other by the Deputies from the Towns in Suabia.

'The three Colleges deliberate apart. When they are agreed on any point, and the emperor consents, it becomes a resolution of the empire: but, if the three colleges are not united, or the emperor refuses his consent to it, the measure drops.

'As soon as the Diet breaks up, the Emperor publishes, in his name, a recess or minute of the resolutions passed at it; exhorts the States to see them carried into execution; and orders the tribunals to conform to them.

'Another important event in this period of the History of Germany, is the establishment of *The Imperial Chamber and the Aulic Council* by Maximilian I.—The Imperial Chamber was fixed at Worms in 1495; it was removed to Spires in 1533, and to Westlar in 1696, where it is now held. The president of it is appointed by the Emperor: the assessors, by the States: it has always been viewed by the Emperors with jealousy; and, soon after its institution, Maximilian prevailed on the States to permit him to revive his Court Palatine, or, as it is generally called, the Aulic Council. With some exceptions, each of these courts has equal jurisdiction; there is no appeal from one to the other, so that the dernier resort from both must be to the Diet. During the vacancy of the throne, the powers of the Aulic Council are suspended; but the Imperial Council acts under the Vicars of the Empire. From its superior activity, and the general superior ability of its Judges and Advocates, the Aulic Council has engrossed almost the whole of the business, not especially reserved to the cognizance of the Imperial Council.'

Some collateral matters occur in this publication on which we should remark if our space allowed: but we must content ourselves with observing, that it is with regret that we see Mr. Butler express a wish for any more of the performances of the Abbé Barruel, whom we regard as either a most prejudiced or a most disingenuous writer; and that we cannot subscribe to the compliment which is paid in these pages to a publicist of a very different, and in our opinion of a far more respectable description, since, nevertheless, we do not think that the readers of the *History of the Politics of Great Britain and France*, if well informed and discriminating, *will either confess*, or be convinced, *that Great Britain did not join the league against France till after the open and avowed hostilities of the latter country had made it unavoidable.* Denying that the author

of that work has placed the question on its true basis, or that he has fairly discussed it, or that he properly appreciates evidence, we protest against his conclusions: but we are ready to admit that his history contains much valuable information, and assigns better reasons for the line of conduct pursued by Mr. Pitt than any which that orator or his partisans were able to produce, till the appearance of Mr. Marsh's volume.

The merits of the present performance bear the impression of its author's professional habits: the reader finds brought before him all the proper parties; their descriptions are set forth,—their pedigrees deduced,—their possessions defined,—their tenure traced to descent, grant, or purchase,—their civil and spiritual relations developed,—and the doctrines and maxims, feodal and legal, which governed the age, applied to their transactions. Thus the work equally interests the adept and the novice; the one sees those matters, which before he discerned but dimly, placed in full daylight; and the other is furnished with clues which will guide him through the intrieate mazes of modern history. Indeed, the youth who will attentively endeavour to impress on his mind the various aids which this volume supplies, its appropriate pedigrees, its accurate geographical demarcations, and its leading statements, will incredibly facilitate and accelerate his progress in this vast branch of knowlege. Instructors, also, will find it a convenient manual, and an admirable basis for a course of lectures: but, highly as we estimate it, and sanguine as our expectations are of its success, we scarcely dare hope to hear that it is become a text-book either in the University of Oxford or at the college of Maynooth. We fear that the protestant professor will repudiate it as savouring too much of whiggism; and that the catholic lecturer will not hazard the exposure to his pupils of the free language which it maintains respecting the head of the church. Though, however, we cannot hold out to it the promise of these public distinctions, we have no doubt of its being honoured with the suffrages of the intelligent and the wise of both communions.

Some important *Errata*, mentioned at the end of the volume, require the reader's notice.

Jo.

ART. XIII. *Treatise on the Marches and Movements of Armies.* Translated (by Permission) from the original Manuscript of General Jarry, by Richard Rochfort, Captain 2d Battalion 15th Regiment. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Ridgway.

CAPTAIN Rochfort informs us in his prefatory letter that, when he first read this work in the original manuscript, 'he was so strongly impressed with the opinion of its value, that he solicited and obtained permission from General Jarry to translate it into English for the purpose of offering it to the public.' We may therefore regard this short treatise as being, in the opinion of Captain R. at least, the late General Jarry's *chef d'œuvre*, and one of the most important of all the lectures which he delivered at High Wycombe, at a great expence to this country, in order to give a final polish to the military education of young officers intended for the staff of our army. We must confess, however, that we are unable to discover any thing in this printed lecture, which is not to be found in other military publications; except some errors and mistakes, which we are surprized to find committed by a man of General Jarry's rank, and who acted as Inspector general of studies at the Royal Military College, and which we should not have supposed that his translator could overlook.

To his late friend's manuscript, Captain R. has prefixed two introductory questions from Mr. Dalby's Course of Mathematics designed for the officers of the college, as a preliminary study with which it is necessary for them to be familiarized and thoroughly conversant, before their minds can be prepared for understanding that part of the work which treats of the marches and movements of armies. His language, indeed, is calculated to lead readers to suppose that this little treatise is an extraordinary effort of human intellect; and that much preparatory study is requisite for comprehending it. The two problems, however, which he introduces from Mr. Dalby's performance, are such as any school-boy who is acquainted with the common rules of arithmetic may easily solve; and we cannot conjecture why he has furnished only two examples as a preliminary exercise, confining the first to three columns and the second to one, since it is well known that marches, either in retreating or to the front, ought always to be performed with as many columns as the nature of the ground and the strength of the army will admit. We must indeed allow that various parts of this treatise, instead of striking us as luminous, appear materially defective in perspicuity; and so far this circumstance must

contribute

contribute to render *preliminary study* the more necessary for understanding it. At p. 18. General Jarry makes use of these words:

'We can scarcely distinguish more than three sorts of marches in presence of an enemy:—

'First, the march perpendicular to the front.

'Second, the march perpendicular to the rear.

'Third, the parallel march, by the right or left flank, for the purpose of turning the enemy.

'The quarter-wheelings are perpendicular marches round a centre.'

Here the oblique march by the right or left flank is entirely omitted; and the oblique order of battle, also, which has frequently proved superior to the customary mode, is altogether overlooked. The General's expression of *the presence of an enemy* is to be understood as meaning that the two armies are near enough to be able to meet in one day.—As to his definition of *quarter wheelings*, which he calls *perpendicular marches round a center*, common sense revolts at it. Men may move somewhat circularly round a centre: but it is impossible for them to march perpendicularly round one: for if they set out perpendicularly to a right line supposed to be drawn from a centre, they never can move round that centre, but must recede farther and farther from it, like the tangent to a circle. He might with equal propriety have told us that the motion of a horse in turning a wheel or mill is a perpendicular march round a centre.

Following other writers, General Jarry makes the step which a soldier takes in marching, equal to two feet six inches: but it has been made evident to those who have performed long marches with troops, that they cannot for any considerable distance of ground or length of time move with such a step; and that on such marches, and particularly in bad roads, their average step does not exceed twenty-two inches.

In page 22 we are told that 'the time, which a column employs to arrive by filing, is in inverse proportion to its front; that is to say, a column of 4 in front, whose rear shall require an hour to arrive at the spot whence its head has set out, will perform the same distance in three quarters of an hour if it file with 6 in front, and half an hour if it file with 8 in front.' Three quarters of an hour, however, are not to one hour, or four quarters of one, in the inverse proportion of 6 to 4, or 3 to 2: but two thirds of an hour (or 40 minutes) are to an hour (or 60 minutes) in the inverse ratio of 6 to 4, or 3 to 2, or in the direct ratio of 2 to 3. The translator represents the General's 'mind as a lamp, that threw lustre wherever it reached:' but it must certainly be allowed that

here he has not thrown much light on the application of inverse ratio, or proportion, to military purposes. Three quarters of an hour would give such a column a front of $\frac{16}{3}$ men, or of 5 men and one third of a man.—In a note to p. 67. we find 2310 yards nearly, instead of 2380 yards nearly: but this must be regarded as a mere oversight, or error of the press; and we notice it only that Captain R. may have it rectified in another edition.

Unquestionably, a number of useful observations occur in this little treatise: but they are to be found in various other military writers, and have been suggested times without number. —With regard to the translation, we remark in it several expressions which do not accord with the idiom of the English language, and are far from being correct.—On the whole, when we find Captain Rochfort stating that he has translated the other manuscripts of General Jarry, and is ready to resign his translations of them to any public spirited officer, on condition that he will publish them, we cannot refrain from giving it as our opinion that, if this be in reality one of the best of them, the reputation of his friend will not be consulted by the farther communication of his lectures.

Glen.

ART. XIV. *Synopsis of Geography, for the Use of the Junior Department of the Royal Military College at Great Marlow, Bucks.* 8vo. pp. 58. Printed at Glocester for the author.

WE have already felt ourselves under the necessity of lamenting the degrading state of military instruction in this country, both at the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, and at the Royal Military College professedly established for the improvement of our army, at a time when we are at war with almost all the world; and we have discharged a duty, which as reviewers we were imperiously required to perform, in pointing out the absurd and erroneous instruction in fortification, which is carried on at both these expensive establishments. In the preceding article, also, we have taken notice of a palpable blunder of the late General Jarry, Inspector General of Studies at the latter institution, in applying the doctrine of inverse ratio to the marches and movements of armies, in the only one of his lectures which (as we believe) has yet been published. We have even been inclined, by a consideration of these and many other circumstances that have come to our knowlege, reluctantly to conclude that it would be much better to abolish both those establishments at once, than to support them in their present state at the national expence; since they are much better calculated for introducing

introducing into the army immorality and ignorance than military science. We are sorry to add that a careful perusal of the Synopsis before us has not contributed, in any respect, to make us change our opinion. It is not accompanied by the name of the writer, who can scarcely be called its *author*, since it is chiefly borrowed from the geographical part of the syllabus for the junior department of the college; and both are plagiarisms from defective and erroneous treatises on geography, faithfully repeating their errors and defects.

The plan for studying geography is this:

'PLAN OF STUDY.

'*FIRST CLASS.*

'UNDER REMOVE.

'Chapters I. and II. are to be learnt by heart. The definitions in Chap. I. are to be explained by the Professor.

'UPPER REMOVE.

'The remaining six chapters are to be studied with maps, together with the divisions of countries in Chapter II.

'*SECOND CLASS.*

'UNDER REMOVE.

'The preparatory observations and definitions prefixed to the problems for the terrestrial globe, are to be learnt by heart, together with the twenty-five problems.

'UPPER REMOVE.

'Solution of problems on the globe.'

It may be proper to observe, for the information of our readers, that the studies of the junior department,—which for a variety of reasons (and among others the want of commodious rooms in which the gentlemen cadets may prosecute their studies,) seems to be very improperly established at Great Marlow,—are carried on by means of *six* classes, three of which comprehend the instruction of the *under school*, and three that of the *upper school*; and that each class is divided into two *parts* or *removes*, making in the whole six removes in each school.—In the under school, are taught writing, French, Arithmetic, Practical Geometry, Geography, Perspective, History, Drawing, Fencing, Religious and Moral Instruction, Swimming, and the Drill Instruction. In the upper; Mathematics, German, the Eastern Languages, Fortification, Military Surveys, Military Tactics, the Classics, Equitation, and the Sabre.—It is worthy of remark that it is a standing regulation, that no cadet may enter on the study of Geography without being able to write;—but was writing

ever known before to be taught at a college, or to form part of a collegiate education? The boys even in the under school, as a part of their religious and moral instruction, have lectures read to them in explanation of Paley's Evidences of Christianity, and of Clark, Newton, Hurd, &c. on the Prophecies; and they are exercised in abbreviating Paley's Evidences, and in writing answers to questions suggested by his book.—Another regulation directs these boys to be instructed in *practical geometry*, before they are taught any part of the theory, or how to demonstrate a single proposition in Euclid.

From the plan of studying geography now before us, it appears that the students are expected to learn by heart not only the preparatory observations and definitions prefixed to the twenty-five problems for the terrestrial globe, but also the problems themselves, before they are taught to solve even one of them. Now what would any person of sense think of a preceptor, who should make his pupil learn by heart all the theorems and problems in Euclid, with their demonstrations and constructions, before he shewed him how to demonstrate or construct any of them, or endeavoured to make him understand one of them? It seems, however, to be a fundamental principle in the instruction at the Royal Military College, to make the boys learn by heart what they do not understand.

We cannot undertake to point out every inaccuracy in this Synopsis, but we shall specify a few of such as are most manifest.

Montreal is mentioned as the chief town in upper Canada: but it is well known that Montreal is not even within the limits of upper Canada, the lower boundary of which runs considerably above that town.—*Shelburne* also is stated to be the principal town in New Brunswick: but it is in the province of Nova Scotia, and at a great distance from any part of the former.—*Amboy* is placed as one of the chief towns in New Jersey: but it is a mere village, compared to Elizabeth-town and Newark.—*Annapolis* is called the principal town in Maryland, though it is trifling both in size and population, compared with Baltimore.

Several of the chief towns in the countries in Africa are entirely unnoticed.

In his list of the Capes in America, the writer has omitted several that are well known and striking, such as Henlopen, Charles, Henry, Blo[illegible]don, &c. In his catalogue of its Gulphs and Bays, he has left out the very remarkable Bay of Fundy, which separates Nova Scotia from New Brunswick, is

about

about one hundred leagues in length, and forms with the Atlantic ocean and Bay Verte, in the Gulph of St. Laurence, the peninsula of Nova Scotia; the distance across the Isthmus between those two Bays being only twelve miles.—In enumerating its rivers, he omits the river St. John, which is both large and beautiful, the Connecticut, and a variety of other principal streams.

Torres is misprinted instead of *Forres*, as one of the chief towns in Elgin or Murray, in Scotland; and in enumerating the mountains of that country, the writer inserts Ben Wevis, though no such mountain exists. Even Ben Nevis and Shihallion are wrongly spelt. The first should be written *Ben Evis* and the second *Shichallin*.—Among the principal Lakes, he inserts Loch Tay but omits Loch Ow, which is larger than the former.—He likewise overlooks the rivers Orchy and Aw, while he inserts others that are much smaller.

No directions are given for rectifying the terrestrial globe in latitude and time, though the writer repeatedly refers to this rectification in his problems, and though it be one of those in the abstract for examination contained in the Syllabus of the college.

We find no reference to any branch of military geography, or to chorographical, topographical, and hydrographical descriptions of such prominent features of countries, places, situations, and positions, as are naturally capable of influencing military operations. Yet correct accounts of the principal ranges of mountains, with the passes and practicable routes for armies across them; of the courses of rivers, pointing out where they are fordable and navigable, and where they are not, where their streams are rapid and where gentle, and where both their currents and banks are most favourable and commodious for throwing temporary or military bridges across them; of the population and fertility of countries and provinces, shewing what armies they are capable of supporting were they to enter them, whether they are mountainous and rocky or level, inclosed or open, favourable for the operations of infantry or of cavalry; and of the principal strong holds and fortresses in different countries, with the advantages or disadvantages of their situations or positions, &c. &c. form some of the most useful parts of geography to those who are intended for the profession of arms. A man of military talents and ideas might give some very profitable instruction to the gentlemen cadets, by a geographical comparison between this country and those on the continent. The latter are for the most part open and without inclosures; whereas the interior parts of this island are so generally inclosed, that

neither cavalry nor horse-artillery can act with advantage in them. It may justly indeed be regarded as the only inclosed country in Christendom; and of course, independently of its insular situation, as very differently circumstanced from others for the purposes of national defence. It has but few parts on which two large armies could be drawn up in battle-array; in many, an army attempting to penetrate into or through it would be under the necessity of marching in one column; and, in several situations, along roads winding round hills, or rising grounds, and of consequence liable to be attacked at once in front, rear, and on both flanks. Such instruction would be much more useful to young gentlemen intended for the army, than storing up in their memory the names of towns and countries, without the smallest reference to any military considerations. It is in vain, however, to look for profitable tuition at Great Marlow, while the management of the college is in the hands of persons who neither reside at it nor know what ought to be taught in it. Surely, these are not times for converting military establishments into jobs, or for trifling with the education of youths for our army. The governor of that college ought to be thoroughly acquainted with the various branches of science connected with military instruction and their application to practice, and should be obliged to reside constantly on the spot: but even if *his* post must be made a sinecure, the *Lieutenant Governor* should unquestionably be permitted to reside in that place in which by far the greatest number of students are educated, in order that he might have daily and hourly opportunities of inquiring into irregularities, of attending to occurrences as they arise, of redressing grievances, and of checking improprieties and mischief in the bud: instead of being restricted to the receipt of a sort of garbled and mutilated account of circumstances and events at Great Marlow, through the tedious formality and delay of written reports and representations sent thence to another place. Had it not been for this restriction, arising out of jealousy and party-spirit, the mutinies which lately took place there, we are well informed, might have been prevented.

We may regard the synopsis before us as one of the Royal-Military-College horn-books; and were it not necessary for the public good to point out its errors and deficiencies, it would scarcely be intitled to any—and certainly not to the detailed—notice which we have taken of it. In its concluding pages, we have what the author calls, 'Etymology of many terms used in geography:'—but several of his etymologies and definitions are, to speak in the gentlest terms of them, very incorrect. For instance, he defines the *zenith* to be a

tract

tract or *way* in the heavens above our heads, and to be the same with *azimuth;* making an arch and a point one and the same thing. The zenith is the *vertical point* directly over our heads; the *cœli vertex*, or *cœli apex*. It is diametrically opposite to the *nadir*, and is sometimes called the pole of the horizon, from its being 90° distant from it.

Our only view in making the preceding observations on this performance, and on the Royal Military College, is to improve the system of instruction in both, and to ameliorate an important national institution which stands much in need of alteration and amendment.

Glen.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For NOVEMBER, 1808.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 15. *The Natural History of Birds*, intended chiefly for young Persons. By Mrs. Charlotte Smith. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Johnson. 1807.

THESE volumes, which were completed for publication some time before the author's death, are composed in the form of Letters, and may be considered as a continuation of her *Conversations on Natural History*, already mentioned in our Review*. Their professed object is not to exhibit a system of ornithology, but merely to sketch a general view of the six Linnéan orders of Birds; omitting all those species which have nothing remarkable in their history, or that are not natives of this country, or of Europe. The whole is occasionally interspersed with appropriate poetical allusions or illustrations, and is usually accompanied with hints relative to their mythological story, or their characters in apologue.

Mere descriptions of natural objects, we are well aware, must prove tedious and unprofitable to most readers, and especially to the young: but in this interesting little performance, the fair writer has too often overlooked the notice of a few discriminating characters, which might have enabled even the juvenile student to distinguish one species from another. In some instances, too, the fictitious history of a bird obtains a larger share of attention than its real instincts and manners; and we may add that Mrs. Smith's own fables, which fortunately are not numerous, are rather deficient in vivacity.

A passage or two will suffice to exemplify the manner in which the more useful portions of the performance are composed:

'The genus Woodpecker, *Picus*, comprehends some of the most beautiful birds inhabiting our woods. The Green Woodpecker, Picus Viridis, is the commonest, and is called in many countries the Laugher, from its frequently, and particularly before the welcome showers of Spring, making a noise very like laughing. In Sussex it

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* See Rev. Vol. xlix. N. S. p. 79.

is known by the name of the Yaffil. This bird, larger and longer than a missel-thrush, is of an olive green, with a cap of glossy crimson feathers. With its hard wedge shaped bill it pierces the bark of trees, especially those of which the wood is soft, or enlarges any hole it finds already made; and when the cavity is sufficiently spacious, builds its nest within it, usually laying five or six eggs. The food of these birds is insects, which it collects with its long tongue. To me all the notes of this bird are particularly pleasant, from the association of ideas. An avenue of aspen trees, planted by my grandfather, was one of the walks in which I delighted in my early youth. It was frequented by great numbers of these birds, which built there every year. The pallid colour and tremulous motion of the leaves of the aspen, which from the slenderness of their stalks vibrate and quiver in the lightest air, give to this tree something of the melancholy air which we attach to very different trees, the cypress and the weeping willow; but the Woodpecker seems to feel himself happy among them, as from the softness of the grain he can easily penetrate to make his nest; and amid the decayed wood great numbers of insects are to be found.'—

'The Partridge, *Tetrao Perdix*, which belongs to another division of the same genus, is well known in England. There is a species in France, rather larger, and with red legs; but it is not found farther north than the Orleanois, and I have never heard that the attempts to naturalize them in England have succeeded. Perdix was, as Ovid tells, the nephew of Dedalus, who, feeling much displeased at his superior genius, which he feared might eclipse his own, pushed him from the top of a tower; when Minerva, whose favourite he was, caused him to assume the form of a Partridge.

"Still, though transform'd, his ancient name he keeps,
And with low flight the new shorn stubble sweeps;
Declines the lofty trees, and thinks it best
To brood in hedgerows, o'er his humble nest."
Ovid's Met. Book 8th.

'Among all the amusements eagerly followed by men of fortune in this country, none is more universal than Partridge shooting; and as the animal suffers little or no pain, and the exercise is wholesome, and not so expensive as many others, there is much reason for the partiality many people feel for it.

'I had an odd accident happen to me some years ago in France: I was riding on an extensive plain near Dieppe, and suddenly something fell exactly between my mare's ears, and startled her so that I with difficulty kept my seat. It was a Partridge, which had been struck by a hawk, and fell at that instant. The hunter of the air was obliged to relinquish his prey, which my servant put into his pocket. When the destiny of nations or of individuals was supposed to be learned from the flight or actions of birds, I might perhaps have looked into destiny from such a circumstance; and had I consulted the augurs, might have been alarmed with prognostication of evil, which no such supposed foreknowledge enables any one to avoid.'

We could have wished that Mrs. Smith had indulged in some latitude of detail on the astonishing proofs of ingenuity exhibited by

many of the feathered race, in the construction of their nest, and of tender affection manifested by the mothers to their helpless offspring. The information, however, which she conveys, is for the most part correct, and expressed in easy and suitable language. Among the few inadvertencies which occur in her statements, is the exaggerated swiftness of the Ostrich; which, it is alleged, when bearing a man on his back, can outstrip the fleetest horse. The little sand-heaps, mentioned at page 136 of the first volume, are not the work of Sand-eels, but of a species of worm; and *Lichen rangiferinus* is the botanical designation of the Reindeer moss. The *generosity* of the Eagle, like that of the Lion, is probably fabulous; and when the author glanced at the superstitious virtues of the eagle-stone, she might have told her pupils what it really is.

Such lines as the following are obviously flat and prosaic:

'This in process of time so rais'd her pride.'
'Within a parla's area vast.'
'Or uncle, cousin, brother, or brother-in-law.'
'Will lend a hand, to help us get the corn in?'

On the whole, however, we recommend these Letters as supplying an agreeable and useful aid to the studies of the young, and as not unacceptable entertainment to many of riper years. **Muir.**

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 16. *A Letter to the Commissioners of Military Enquiry*, containing Animadversions on some Parts of their 5th Report; and an Examination of the Principles on which the Medical Department of Armies ought to be formed. By Edward N. Bancroft, M.D. Fellow of the College of Physicians, Physician to His Majesty's Forces and to St. George's Hospital, &c. 8vo. 3s. Cadell and Davies. 1808.

Art. 17. *A Letter to the Commissioners of Military Enquiry*, in Reply to some Animadversions of Dr. E. N. Bancroft on their fifth Report. By James M'Grigor, M.D. F.R.S. Ed. Fellow of the College of Phyicians, Edinburgh, Deputy Inspector of Army Hospitals, &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. Murray. 1808.

The Commissioners of Military Inquiry, in the course of their public labours, were led to make some remarks on the constitution of the medical department of the army, and it is to this part of their report that Dr. Bancroft's animadversions are directed. He pays them every degree of respect for the purity of their motives and the general utility of their researches: but he intimates that, on this particular question, they have been misled through a want of proper information. They acknowlege that, when they entered on the inquiry, the subject was in a great measure new to them; and it appears that the opinions which they afterward embraced were, in a principal degree formed from the writings of Dr. Jackson. The most material of these opinions, one indeed of extreme importance to the future state of military medicine in this country, is that army-physicians are useless, and that regimental surgeons are alone qualifi-

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ed to perform the duties which were formerly intrusted to physicians. This idea, which has been zealously maintained by Dr. Jackson in his different publications, is as warmly controverted by Dr. Bancroft; and, as far as we are able to form a judgment on the question, he argues with ability and effect. We are inclined to believe that the Commissioners themselves, on a more extensive view of the subject, will be disposed to alter their decision.

Dr. Jackson is impressed with the idea that there is something in the nature of 'army-practice' so peculiar and specific, that no person can be qualified to act in a military capacity, who has not been brought up in the exercise of this particular department, and has in fact received the whole (or the principal part) of his medical education in regimental hospitals. Dr. Bancroft, on the other hand, contends that military medicine requires, as much as any other part of the profession, a regular and scientific education; and that the physician who is qualified for civil practice may, by a very little attention, easily obtain a knowlege of the petty details of the military department, and will be much better adapted for his important station than the man whose education has been conducted on the contracted scale which is recommended by the Commissioners. He asserts the want of foundation for the strenuous reasoning of Dr. Jackson, respecting the peculiarities of 'army-practice' and 'army-diseases,' as something essentially different from general practice, or the diseases that occur in civil life; and he declares that army-practice and army-diseases present nothing with which a physician of liberal education is not acquainted; while the man, whose means of information have been confined to the routine of a regimental hospital, must be perpetually thrown into situations in which he will feel the want of a more enlarged sphere of information.

'It appears to me,' says Dr. B., 'very unlikely that young men with only the usual and scanty acquisitions of hospital-mates, without proper books or leisure for reading, and with military examples and habits very unfavourable to thought and reflection, could in a very few years, as you suppose, qualify themselves so as to become not only *good* surgeons, but also *better* physicians than men who were regularly and liberally educated to *that part only* of the practice of *medicine*, and who, from early youth, have been devoted, at a great expence, to the attainment of knowledge from universities, public hospitals, lectures, books, &c.'

We should suppose that this sentiment would be generally adopted by those who are qualified to form a judgment on the subject.

In the course of his pamphlet, Dr. Pancroft takes occasion to animadvert, perhaps with too much severity, on the evidence which was given by Dr. M'Grigor before the Commissioners; and this circumstance has called forth the pen of the latter gentleman. Dr. M'Grigor's letter is principally occupied with a defence of his own conduct; and, we think, he is successful in explaining some circumstances which bore a suspicious aspect. We shall not, however, deem it necessary for us to enter into a minute examination of the personal controversy between these gentlemen.

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With regard to the style and composition of the two pamphlets, we must remark that Dr. Bancroft writes like a man of education and a gentleman; and that, even when he is most severe in his reflections, his language is temperate. We are sorry that we cannot bestow the same commendation on his adversary; and though we are not surprized that Dr. M'Grigor feels some degree of irritation, it might have been hoped that he would have had the prudence to conceal it.

This controversy has extended itself to a considerable length, and many other publications respecting it have appeared, to which we propose to advert in our next number. The present article will sufficiently *initiate* our readers in the object of it. **Bos.**

Art. 18. *A popular View of Vaccine Inoculation*, with the practical Mode of conducting it; shewing the Analogy between the Small-pox and Cow-pox, and the Advantages of the latter. By Joseph Adams, M.D. F.L.S. &c. &c. Crown 8vo. 4s. 6d. R. Phillips. 1807.

Perhaps the most important part of this tract consists in the speculation of the author on the analogy between small-pox and cow-pox. He attempts to prove that these affections are only modifications of the same disease; or, more strictly, that cow-pox is an accidental variety of small-pox, which has become permanent. In order to establish this point, he observes that the small-pox occasionally assumes a peculiarity in its appearance, and that this peculiarity is retained through several successive inoculations. He describes a kind of small-pox which was remarkably mild in its character; and which, when propagated by inoculation, bore a considerable resemblance to cow pox, both in the local appearance on the arm, and in the general train of its symptoms. From this circumstance, he infers that the quality of the matter used in inoculation is a point of more importance than has been generally imagined; and he attributes the extraordinary success which attended the Suttons, in the commencement of their practice, not merely to the judicious treatment of their patients, but (in some measure at least) to their having obtained a remarkably mild kind of matter. How far Dr. Adams's opinion may prove correct can only be determined by a long train of experiments and observations. In the instance which he has adduced, the disease certainly appeared to retain its specific character: but every practitioner must have witnessed the occurrence of facts which would lead to a different conclusion, when, of two subjects inoculated from the same source, one has the most favourable and the other the most severe disease. Dr. Adams endeavours to prove the identity of small pox and cow-pox on a different ground. He adduces the principle which was proposed by Mr. Hunter as a general law of the animal œconomy, "that no two diseases will continue at the same time, in the same place, and in the same constitution." This principle appears to have been inferred from the occurrences which are seen to arise with respect to some of those diseases that bear the strongest analogy to cow-pox. When by any means the constitution is at the same time subject to the influence of small-pox and measles, the former is always arrested

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in its progress, until the latter has run its complete course; when the small-pox resumes its regular series of actions, and requires for their completion the full length of time, without reckoning that period which was occupied by the measles. The same interference takes place with small-pox and chicken-pox; and in the same way the chicken-pox and measles suspend the action of cow-pox.

'From this it follows (says Dr. A.) that the action of measles, and also of chicken-pox, is different from the action of small-pox or cow-pox, and that they cannot be maintained at the same time in the same constitution.

'But if small-pox and cow-pox (he adds) are inserted at the same time in different parts of the same person, we find no interruption whatever in the progress of either. Both begin and go through their usual courses with the same regularity as if only one of them had been inserted in two different places. If the secondary pustules of the small-pox are late in coming out, it will sometimes happen, that the cow-pox inoculation, having completed it's course, will become the seat of a small-pox pustule, or that its whole surface will become variolous. This is easily known by the contents becoming purulent, or mattery, instead of remaining limpid; a difference which, we shall presently have occasion to remark, makes the only unequivocal distinction between the two diseases.'

Without expressing our conviction of the truth of Dr. Adams's hypotheses, we may be permitted to say that his ideas on this subject are ingenious, and deserve farther investigation.

With respect to the latter part of the publication, which treats more immediately on the subject of cow-pox, we cannot speak in high terms of commendation; since we meet with nothing that is new, and the remarks are in general common-place and uninteresting. Although Dr. Adams professes to be a decided advocate for vaccination, yet his praise is of that faint kind which seems rather to be the result of indifference than of conviction. He writes to recommend the cow-pox, but he devotes a large portion of this work to a description of the method of inoculating for the small-pox; and it appears pretty evidently that he attributes to his newly discovered *pearl variety*, advantages which are superior to those that belong to vaccination.—It only remains for us to add that the matter of the pearl-pox is to be had genuine from the discoverer alone.

Bos.

On the subject of the Vaccine Inoculation, we have so fully expressed our opinion on different occasions, that we shall not consider it as necessary to do more than take a very cursory view of the following works.

Art. 19. *Hints for the Consideration of Parliament*, in a Letter to Dr. Jenner, on the supposed Failures of Vaccination at Ringwood; including a Report of the Royal Jennerian Society on that Subject, after a careful public Investigation upon the Spot; also containing Remarks on the prevalent Abuse of the Variolous Inoculation, and on the dreadful Exposure of Out-patients attending at the Small pox Hospital. By William Blair, Surgeon at the Lock

Lock Hospital and Asylum, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 300. 8s. 6d. Boards. Callow, &c. 1808.

This publication principally dwells on two topics; first, the conduct of Mr. Birch respecting some occurrences at Ringwood, which were regarded as unfavourable to vaccination; and, 2dly, the practice which is pursued at the Small pox Hospital, of performing inoculation with variolous matter. We have before been under the necessity of animadverting on the opposition so unremittingly manifested by Mr. Birch, to the practice which has been sanctioned by so great a majority of the most enlightened medical men in all parts of the civilized world. This opposition, indeed, might be pardoned, because, after all, authority (however great) ought not to be superior to the convictions of the judgment, if we are assured that these convictions are founded on principles of integrity: but, in the present instance, we have too much reason to doubt whether this be the case; and so far as a man's conduct affords any ground for judging of his motives, we are constrained to conclude that Mr. Birch's hostility to vaccination is the result either of prejudice or of a worse feeling:—a feeling which we are unwilling to impute to a member of that profession which, when interest and principle have come in competition, has almost uniformly decided in favour of the latter. We have not room to tell the whole tale of the Ringwood cases, and the part which Mr. Birch has acted with respect to them; a circumstance which he will certainly have no occasion to regret.

The other subject, which occupies Mr. Blair's attention, is one which we agree with him in considering as of the utmost importance; and indeed as coming within the few instances in which we think that parliamentary interference would be desirable. The fact is that, since Dr. Adams has been appointed physician to the Small-pox hospital, the practice of variolous inoculation, which had been almost entirely abandoned in favour of vaccination, has been revived to a very great extent; so that during the year 1807 not fewer than 4570 patients had the small-pox infection communicated to them at that hospital, the greatest part of whom, being out-patients, must necessarily disseminate the disease through every quarter of the metropolis. It appears, then, that a greater number were variolated at this institution during the last year, than in the course of the first 30 years of its establishment;—and this is done under the direction of Dr. Adams, a gentleman who has given his decided testimony in favour of vaccination! Are we not justified in saying that the annals of medicine cannot produce an instance of so much deliberate and wilful mischief being effected, under the sanction of science and the profession of benevolence?

Bos.

Art. 20. *Debates in Parliament respecting the Jennerian Discovery*, including the late Debate on the further Grant of 20,000 Pounds to Dr. Jenner, together with the Report of the Royal College of Physicians of London, on the Vaccine Inoculation, with Introductory Remarks. By Charles Murray. 8vo. pp. 184. 5s. Boards. Hatchard, &c. 1808.

We have only occasion to refer our readers to the title of this work, in order to afford them a complete view of its contents. It

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is a collection of valuable documents; and it will always be a subject of interesting curiosity to revert to the manner in which the great discovery of vaccination was received by the British parliament. Bos.

Art. 21. *A Letter on Vaccination*, or the Propriety of inoculating Infants for Cow-pox considered; addressed to those whose Example may influence the inferior Orders. By T. W. Wadley, Surgeon. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray. 1808.

Although this pamphlet does not contain any thing that can be regarded as novel, it may yet be perused with advantage. It exhibits the opinions of a man of great experience, and apparently of sound judgment, who gives an account of facts which have fallen under his own observation, and who coincides with the great mass of his countrymen in warmly recommending the practice of vaccination. D.o

Art. 22. *The Vaccine Scourge*, (a Poem) in Answer to the Calumnies and Falsehoods, lately circulated with great Industry by that extraordinary Surgeon, Mr. Birch, and other Anti-Vaccinists. 8vo. 1s. Murray. 1808.

Art. 23. *The Vaccine Phantasmagoria*, (a Poem.) 4to. 2s. Murray. 1808.

The cause of vaccination is here defended in rhyme; and in this vehicle are conveyed the writer's attacks on Mr. Birch and Dr. Moseley. We apprehend, however, that they will not feel themselves much annoyed by the shafts of these anonymous satirists, after the rude shocks which they have received from respectable members of their own profession, who have employed the more severe weapons of truth and reason in prose. D.o

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Art. 24. *Remarks on the purulent Ophthalmy*, which has lately been epidemical in this Country. By James Ware, Surgeon, F.R.S. 8vo. 2s. Mawman. 1808.

The peculiar attention which Mr. Ware has bestowed on the affections of the eye, for many years, caused us to read with interest his remarks on the very alarming disease of this organ, which has lately made its appearance among us. He objects to the term Egyptian ophthalmia, by which it has been usually designated, because a similar disease has been observed to arise from other sources, and to have been described as prevailing in other countries; and he proposes to denominate it, from its most prominent symptom, purulent ophthalmia. The observation is, to a certain extent, correct: but it may be questioned whether any disease of the eyes has ever been noticed, the contagious nature of which has been so distinctly ascertained as the one that is epidemic in Egypt. If, therefore, we are not to call it Egyptian, we should prefer the name of contagious ophthalmia, which would serve the important purpose of putting every one on his guard against its influence. We do not think that it has yet been proved, that the purulent ophthalmia of infants can be propagated by contagion, although it is probable that it is generally produced by contact with the diseased secretions of the mother. Mr. Ware is disposed to regard these two species of the inflamed eye as similar in their nature and origin; and he thinks that they

are both produced by the application of contagious matter, derived either from the urethra, or from an eye previously affected. When the disease occurs in those who are affected with gonorrhœa, it is not stated whether it takes place in consequence of some of the matter coming accidentally in contact with the eye, or by some internal translation of the disease: but we should be strongly inclined to adopt the first supposition. The ophthalmia, which has occurred with so much violence and frequency in some of our regiments, was originally traced to the contagion brought from Egypt, and appears to have been propagated by employing the same water and towel in washing the face. Mr. Ware has observed this circumstance to happen in his private practice.

With respect to the cure of this complaint, it appears to be admitted that profuse general bleedings are absolutely necessary for subduing its violence in the first instance: but it is not determined with certainty whether any topical applications are necessary, or which are the most essential. From its analogy with the ophthalmia which occurs in infants, Mr. Ware was induced to try the effect of a remedy which he had found remarkably useful in this latter complaint, the *aqua camphorata* of Bates, which may be considered as a dilute solution of the sulphate of copper; and this is to be frequently injected into the eye by a syringe. He also recommends the scarification of the inside of the lower eye-lid, as a remedy of considerable efficacy, when the general bleeding has been carried as far as it is proper; to which he unites blisters, purgatives, and occasional anodynes.

When the sight is lost in this species of ophthalmia, this privation generally happens in consequence of the rupture of the cornea, from the great distensions which it experiences; and from this circumstance, Mr. Ware was led to try the effect of an operation proposed by Mr. Wardrop of Edinburgh, the puncturing of the cornea, so as to evacuate the aqueous humour. The suggestion is certainly plausible, and its propriety appears to be confirmed by the result of two cases in which it was put in practice. **Bos.**

Art. 25. *Observations on the Egyptian Ophthalmia, and Ophthalmia purulenta*, as it has appeared in England. By William Thomas, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinson. 1808.

Mr. Thomas had an opportunity of observing the progress of the contagious ophthalmia as it appeared in the Nottingham militia during the summer of 1806, and afterward in the 11th Royal veteran battalion. He conceives, in opposition to the opinion of Mr. Ware, of which we have given an account in the preceding article, that the ophthalmia, which from its origin has been called Egyptian, and the purulent ophthalmia, are essentially different diseases; although in many of their symptoms they bear a close resemblance to each other.

'The difference (says he) between the Egyptian Ophthalmia, or the *Ophthalmia Vera*, as it occurs in that country, and the *Ophthalmia Purulenta* as observed here, cannot possibly be overlooked;—the first commencing with fever, and increasing with the inflammation of the eye; the *Ophthalmia Purulenta* arising without any febrile disposition, and

and bearing in every respect the strongest analogy to other local infections of a specific nature, especially in parts of nearly a similar organisation.'

We scarcely feel ourselves competent to decide on this question. Mr. Ware's authority, in every question connected with the eye, is deservedly very great; yet on this point it may be inferred that he has formed his opinion rather from the report of others, than from any extensive experience which he has had with this variety of the disease.

Mr. Thomas seems to have been particularly fortunate in his treatment. His plan of cure consisted in the utmost attention to cleanlinesss, in frequent ablutions with cold water, and in the application of an ointment composed of kali and spermaceti. By these simple means, he effected the cure, generally without any untoward occurrences. It may, however, be reasonably doubted whether the epidemic, which fell under his care, was in its nature and tendency as severe as the others of which accounts have been published. **Bos.**

Art. 26. *Identities ascertained;* or an Illustration of Mr. Ware's Opinion respecting the Sameness of Infection in Venereal Gonorrhœa and the Ophthalmia of Egypt; with an Examination of Affinity betweeen antient Leprosy and Lues. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Callow, &c. 1808.

The anonymous author of this pamphlet agrees with Mr. Ware respecting the strong resemblance which subsists between the gonorrhœa discharge, and that which takes place from the eye in the purulent ophthalmia: but though he believes that this ophthalmia is propagated only by contagion, yet he regards it as impossible that it must not have been a much more frequent occurrence, were the matter from a diseased urethra capable of being transferred to the eye, and of there generating the disease. This difficulty, however, he thinks, is removed by having recourse to a principle first suggested by Mr. Foote, " that the matters of gonorrhœa and chancre are not capable of producing any effect on any other part of the body of that individual from whom they are derived." Assuming this to be a fact, he argues, and certainly with some ingenuity, that, whatever was the original seat of the complaint, whether about the genitals or in the eye, the infection must, almost in every instance, be propagated to the same part in other individuals. From circumstances, the cause of which it is now impossible to ascertain, but the existence of which may be easily conceived, the disease in Egypt was principally confined to the eyes; and our countrymen, having been once infected in this organ, the contagion has, by using the same water, towels, bedding, &c. been disseminated to the eyes of their associates.

In the latter part of his pamphlet, the author extends the same analogy to the diseases of lues and leprosy. After having remarked on the very singular and unparalleled fact, of the disappearance of leprosy soon after the introduction of lues, he endeavours to explain it on the principle that they are identical diseases, which therefore cannot be transferred to different parts of the same body. From the manner in which the infection is received, and from other circumstances

circumstances attending the disease, it is clearly shewn that lues must soon become the more prevalent, and, by rendering the body incapable of being infected with the contagion of leprosy, would in no long space of time extinguish that disease. The train of reasoning is here, as in the former part of the pamphlet, ingenious; and the arguments bear with them so much plausibility as to intitle them to attention. **Bos.**

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 27. *A Vindication of the Nature and Effect of Evangelical Preaching;* in a Letter to a Barrister: occasioned by the first part of his Hints to the Public and the Legislature. With a Postscript containing Strictures on his second Part. By John Styles. 8vo. pp. 148 3s. 6d. Williams and Smith.

The author of this vindication appears to stand on the very best terms with himself, and to be enamoured of his own eloquence: but in our judgment his composition does not display those properties which would recommend it to dispassionate philosophers and men of correct taste, since it is declamatory, flippant, coarse, and abusive. It may hereafter be lamented by Mr. Styles that he abandoned himself to this species of defence; for it is not by angry words but by pure reasoning that he can gather any laurels in the present warfare. Were he prepared for a calm argumentative conflict, we should welcome him into the field; and as we have no object besides the discovery and establishment of Truth, we will assure him that, if he could persuade us that Calvinism is truth, we would sing our recantation, and join the modern Evangelical standard. Till this period arrives, however, we must resist those doctrines for which he stands forwards as the doughty champion.

We must again enter our protest against the title by which this writer and his party designate themselves; viz. *Evangelical Preachers*, or *Preachers of the Gospel:* since we defy them to point out IN THE EVANGELISTS those expressions in which they couch their doctrines; such as, "*sinning in the federal head;*"—"*the Atonement** of Christ;" "—the

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* The word *Atonement* occurs but once in the whole N. T. (Rom. v. 11.) and there it should have been translated, *Reconciliation*. —By this hint we shall probably subject ourselves, together with the *Barrister*, to the charge of *ignorance* of the Scriptures; and Mr. Styles will perhaps contend that, if the word *Atonement* does not occur *totidem syllabis*, its equivalent may be found in Matt. xx. 28, where our Saviour himself informs us that he came "to give his life a *ransom* for many." He will not, however, obtain much credit as a classic, nor as a sacred critic, if he attempts to deduce his doctrine of *substitution* from this passage. Can he be unapprized of the figurative senses in which the words *sold* and *redeemed* were commonly employed in the antient world? When we read, Judges ii. 14. that "the Lord *sold* the Israelites into the hands of their enemies," and in iv. 2 "into the hands of Jabin," do we ever imagine that the Lord received any thing from Jabin as the price of the Israelites; or when in Deut. vi. 8. the same

—"the guilt of transgression *expiated* by his death;"—"a *vicarious expiatory* death;"—"the righteousness of Christ *imputed* to us;"—"justified by *substitution*," &c. None of these are gospel phrases; and therefore the liberal and appropriate use of them does not intitle preachers to the discriminating appellation of Evangelical. Were it not for the proud boast which they make of themselves in this respect, the circumstance would scarcely merit notice: but, as they arrogate by it "vantage ground" in the first instance, and insinuate a charge against their opponents of being *enemies to the Gospel of Christ*, it is necessary to remind them and the reader, that these divines of the Methodistic sect, in the assumption of this title, set out by taking that for granted which remains to be proved. The Barrister is at issue with them on this point, and so are we as far as we have supported him.

As the essence of the whole controversy seems to be concentrated in the notion of *justification* by *substitution*, it is of the utmost importance that the parties clearly understand one another on this point. Mr. Styles says, 'the truth is that if creatures who have involved themselves in guilt are ever *justified*, it *must* be by *substitution*.' This, however, we positively deny; and again we ask, where is this substitution in the assertion of Scripture, "when the wicked man turneth from his wickedness and doeth that which is lawful and right, *he shall save his soul alive?*" To *justify* is a forensic term; and it would be a singular doctrine at the Old Bailey, that a felon could not be pardoned unless the Lord Mayor or one of the court of Aldermen should be *substituted* at *the drop* in his stead. If Mr. Styles would turn to *Suicer's Thesaurus*, he would read this explanation of the word Δικαιοω, (the greek word translated *to justify*,) "*modo loquendi è foro desumpto, frequentissime significat* absolvo; *justum et innocentem pronuncio.*" Surely a Court or Sovereign could absolve a criminal, or pronounce a sentence of acquittal, without *substituting* an *innocent person* to suffer the punishment which this criminal, in the eye of the law, had merited. Let us ask Mr. S. whether this *substitution*, so far from making justice and mercy meet together, would not be an act both

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people are mentioned as *redeemed* from Pharoah, was any idea of an equivalent being given to the Egyptian king ever supposed? According to the usage of his time and nation, our Lord employed the word *ransom* in the above quoted text; and he meant to assert no more than that he came to give his life for the *deliverance* of many. The parable of the good shepherd, and the discourse of Christ to the two disciples going to Emmaus, though confidently adduced by Mr. S., are still less adapted to his purpose; since a good shepherd may lay down his life *for* his sheep, without being a vicarious sacrifice, and the *necessity* of Christ's sufferings may be maintained without any reference to the strange notion of his having been *substituted in the sinner's stead.* We shall therefore finish this note by strengthening our assertion; and by declaring that neither the word *Atonement*, nor any terms equivalent to Mr. Styles's doctrine of *substitution*, can be found in the writings of the Evangelists.

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of cruelty and injustice?—and shall we accuse the Divine Administration of proceeding on a plan which, in an earthly court, we should stigmatize? If a little reason and common sense were employed on this subject, those gentlemen who are now such sticklers for the doctrine of *substitution, as necessary to justification,* would abandon it, and view the benefits derived to sinners by the death of Christ through a less gross and more satisfactory medium.—We are here told, in a passage quoted from Dr. Owen, "that Christ himself made no *clear distinct revelation* of those *sacred mysteries* which are *peculiar to the faith of the New Testament*;" by which it should seem that Christ, like John the Baptist, was only the precursor of his own religion: but is it to be credited, on the evidence of Dr. Owen, that our Saviour preached without revealing the truths on which the Gospel rests; or that he should never once promulgate the necessity of substitution to justification, if this doctrine contained the essence of evangelical faith? We may remark, also, that the doctrine of substitution, and of the necessity of an equivalent, destroys the principle of free grace.—Mr. Styles will not respect our verdict in his case: but we must honestly inform him that we have not discovered any clear argumentation in his pamphlet on the subjects of Calvinistic doctrine, nor perceived any new light thrown on the tenets which he aims at elucidating and defending. He is however, we are sorry to repeat, a wholesale dealer in a commodity which the good breeding of modern times might have been supposed to have excluded from religious controversy. His libellous epithets are calculated to render even the *Barrister* indignant: but he will probably not gratify his opponent by betraying anger, and will rather reflect that gross calumny is a shabby-looking and odious auxiliary, whom no enemy ever thinks of bringing into the field while he has other forces at his command; and therefore that all the defamatory passages in Mr. Styles's pamphlet are so many indirect acknowlegements of the real weakness, on the ground of pure argument, of the cause which he so uncourteously defends.

By appealing *to the Legislature,* the Barrister has given his adversaries a pretext for accusing him of cherishing a lurking wish to revive religious restrictions, and to play off the engine of secular power against opinions which he deems obnoxious: but, when we consider the apparently liberal and enlightened mind of that writer, we are persuaded that he adores the principles of religious liberty as ardently as we reverence them ourselves; and we must suppose that his intended appeals to the Legislature can relate only to an inquiry into the expediency of a revisal of a certain formula of doctrines, behind which sectaries shelter themselves, even while they avow their hostility to the Established Church. **Mo-y.**

Art. 28. *The Legislature Alarmed, and the Barrister unmasked!* occassioned by *Hints to the Public and the Legislature on the Nature and Effects of Evangelical Preaching, by a Barrister, Part the Second.* By Vigil. 8vo. 1s. Williams and Smith.

No otherwise does *Vigil* shew himself to be awake, and on the watch, than by being in a most violent passion with the *Barrister*; whom he accuses in one place of cherishing opinions not very remote

from those of Tom Paine, and in another of 'displaying a predilection for Popery.' Such frantic *vertiage* is beneath our notice. Mo.y.

POLITICS.

Art. 29. *A brief Statement of the present System of Tythes in Ireland,* with a Plan for its Improvement. By James Mason, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway. 1808.

Before this writer developes his plan, he obviates an objection which has been often made against all interference with the property of the Clergy, by proving that the Legislature has often brought Tithes under its controul, and subjected them to its direction, equally with other property. Conceiving the present system of tithes to be insulting and injurious, he is anxious to have this grievance remedied, without diminishing the revenue of the tithe owner. He therefore proposes to value the tithes of each parish every seven years, and to collect the amount by a poundage on the rental; that is to say, supposing that the land subject to tithes in a parish amounted to 1334 acres, that six shillings per acre averaged the value of the tithe, and that the rental of the parish was 15,000l, per annum; then $6\frac{1}{4}$d. in the pound on this rental would be a complete compensation for tithes, would fall equally, would be collected easily and without partiality, and the poor would have no reason to complain. Mr. Mason informs us that the people of Ireland are generally disposed to promote an alteration in the present mode of taking tithe, which falls on the arable land, while pasturage is exonerated. Do

Art. 30. *A Vindication of the Convention concluded at Cintra,* &c. 8vo. 1s. Wilson.

Sir Hew Dalrymple has here met with a friend, but such an one, that we must think very ill of him indeed if we did not believe that he would much rather meet with two enemies. We do not know whether Sir Hew talked good French, in his discussion with General Kellerman, but certain it is that his present vindicator cannot write good English. G.2.

Art. 31. *Advantages of the Convention of Cintra,* briefly stated in a candid Review of that Transaction, and of the Circumstances under which it took place. By a Friend of the People. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Richardson.

Another and a much better qualified counsel for Sir H. D. here pleads his cause: but general reasoning, and arguments of a declamatory nature, are of little force in this case, which must be decided by a consideration of *facts* that have not been stated in this advocate's brief.—His remarks, however, on the injustice of clamour and intemperance, in judging of the conduct of officers on distant service, are sensible and correct; and he truly and appropriately reminds us that 'Byng was shot by paper bullets before he died by leaden ones.' Nobody now denies the hardship of that commander's fate; and we trust that similar motives on the part of government will never again produce a similar sacrifice. Do

Art.

Art. 32. *The Convention laid at the right Door.* 8vo. 2s. G. Hughes.

Laid at the right door? It may be so: but we much question whether the door will be opened to take it in.—Execrating the convention, and highly eulogizing Sir Arthur Wellesley, this writer argues that the treaty must in principle be attributed to ministers, since they suffered its annunciation to be accompanied by the usual *ebullitions* of joy, and have never accused the officers who signed it *of disobedience to their instructions.* Yet he seems at the same time to maintain that, and to be indignant because, the ministers did *not furnish the (military) Commanders with instructions*, ready cut and dried, to apply to the case of a convention, if any such case should arise. We scarcely understand this part of the animated author's *vituperation*; and he will be still less able to exonerate his favorite Sir Arthur, after the recent admission of the latter at the Court of Inquiry, that he signed the convention voluntarily, and with a general approval of it. The commanders attempt to justify their measures by the circumstances in which they were placed: the question is, first, whether they judged rightly under those circumstances; and then whether any persons, and who, are blameable on account of such circumstances having arisen. We shall be desirous of seeing *the door* fairly open to the investigation of this point. Do

Art. 33. *A Defence of the Convention concluded in Portugal,* 30th August 1808, &c. &c. By Edward Jones, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale, junior.

It is here attempted not only to defend but to panegyrize this famed Convention; every article of which is separately detailed, and '*observed upon.*' The arguments consist chiefly in an amplification of the reasons stated by the Commander in chief himself, in his Dispatch; and in enforcing the preference which ought to be given to the expulsion of the French from Portugal on any terms, in comparison of exposing that country and its metropolis to the horrors of protracted and obstinate warfare. – Some of the reasoning appears to be just, as far as it goes: but it does not touch some important points, such as the *capabilities* of the British army; in other parts it is evidently defective and erroneous; a degree of importance is assigned to the *strong holds* which the French possessed, that has been denied to be due to most of them; and the Protest of the Portuguese General Friere is boldly pronounced to be a forgery, though (as we understand) its authenticity is certain. — The pamphlet is written throughout in very poor and even incorrect language. Do

Art. 34. *A Letter to H. R. H. Duke of York;* or an Exposition of the circumstances which led to the late Appointment of Sir Hew Dalrymple; and an inquiry into the Question whether he, His Royal Highness as Commander in Chief, or His Majesty's Ministers, be most responsible to the Country. By Thomas Hague. 8vo. 2s. Horseman.

We are tired with perusing pamphlets which pretend to be *Expositions, Refutations,* &c. without substantiating any facts. Mr. Hague, whoever he may be, endeavours to imitate the *cutting* style of Junius,

but the razor of that writer is here transformed into a butcher's cleaver. Abundance of insult and of aspersion is cast on the D. of York, and numerous insinuations are thrown out, right and left: but what is proved? Nothing.

The appointment of Sir H. Dalrymple is attributed to a sort of compromise, arising out of the difficulties of Ministers, which were caused by the supposed wish of the Duke of York to take the command in Portugal, the resistance of Government to that desire, and the necessity of nominating an officer who might act 'as a piece of assuaging Diachylon, to cover the excoriated parts of all the claimants.'

G. 2.

POETRY & THE DRAMA.

Art. 35. *Portugal Laurels*; or the Convention: a Satirical Poem. 4to. 2s. 6d. Richardson.

"There was nothing (said the honest Hibernian) so pretty in the whole house as the smart knocker on the outside of the front door." Similar to this remark must be our report of the present poem, the most satirical part of which is couched in the title-page, where our PORTUGAL LAURELS are emblazoned in large capitals, and where the genius of the Satirist begins and ends. Alas! our *withered* Laurels have not even the good fortune of producing an *ever-green* poem. The poet may say with Juvenal, *Facit indignatio versum*: but he has not, like Juvenal, the power of giving that energy and fire to his indignation, which are essential to true satire.

Mo. y.

Art. 36. *An Heroic Epistle to Sir Hew, and a Word to Sir Arthur.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Oddy and Co.

Whatever disputes may arise respecting the fighting and the diplomatic talents of the Knights who are here *epistolized*, no difference of opinion can prevail with regard to the writer's poetic powers; excepting, indeed, that his own estimate of them may vary from that of every other person who reads his production. The late commander in chief in Portugal is thus addressed:

'Stand forth, Sir Hew!—art thou no Dastard?—then
Thou art the veriest Dotard of old men.
Thy second childhood's come, and for this deed,
Rank Idiotcy's the best *plea* thou canst *plead*.'

Sir Arthur is not much more complaisantly treated; and altogether we may truly say that, if the demerits of the Knights in Portugal have been as great as this writer conceives them, his own poetry and his manners are totally unfit to bear the ordeal of any *Court of Inquiry*.

G. 2.

Art. 37. *Dona Ignez de Castro*, a Tragedy, from the Portuguese of Nicola Luiz; with Remarks on the History of that unfortunate Lady. By John Adamson. 12mo. pp. 140. 3s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1808.

The pathetic and interesting story of Inez de Castro has formed the subject of many tragedies, in the languages of Portugal, Spain, France, and England; and the particular interest, which is now attracted

tracted towards the two former countries, has probably induced Mr. Adamson to add one more to the stock of the British public, by furnishing them with the present translation. We must explicitly avow our opinion, however, that they derive no real augmentation from this gift; since the play itself seems to be remarkably deficient in every requisite of dramatic composition, and Mr. A.'s version of it is even below mediocrity. Its diction, though pretending to be poetic, neither pleases the fancy with its imagery, nor gratifies the ear by the harmony of its rhythm; indeed the language is frequently ungrammatical, and the syllables are often so unfortunately arranged that they cannot constitute verse.

The fable, in this drama, is so weakly and disjointedly put together, that it deserves not the name of a regular plot; and its gross violation of historic truth is not palliated by an increase of effect, or an acquisition of poetic probability. In defiance of all decorum, a Princess of Navarre is introduced into the Court of Lisbon as betrothed to Pedro, without his consent; and she is made, with indelicacy and ferocity altogether unfeminine, to seek the accomplishment of her union with him, by ruining if not absolutely murdering an innocent and admirable woman whom she knew to be his wife.—The death of Alphonso is represented as immediately following that of Inez; and both events are communicated to Pedro almost at the same moment, so as to present a double object to his grief, and thus, by distracting it, to diminish its effect.—In the persons of the drama we find nothing that recommends them to our regard. Alphonso, Pedro, and Inez, are divested of a large portion of their historic consequence and interest: the Princess of Navarre is completely disgusting; and the other persons of the drama are beings without character and beneath notice.

A preface to this little work, which may be considered as the best part of it, relates the melancholy story of the heroine with sufficient accuracy and minuteness. Here, also, Mr. Adamson enumerates nine tragedies which have been founded on it: in English, two; in French, one; in Portuguese, three; and in Spanish, three. He has, however, omitted one that belongs to our country, which was published anonymously in 1796, and was mentioned with much commendation in our 21st Vol. p. 131. We are rather surprized that it escaped his diligence, when searching for every production that was connected with his subject; and if he had been acquainted with it, he would probably have desisted from his present labour, since that drama is beyond all comparison superior to the present. It adheres more closely to historic truth; and in construction, character, sentiment, diction, and interest, it maintains a pre-eminence which is highly favourable to our literature. To prove this point of national honour, we would place in juxta-position some passages from the two compositions, if it were allowable for us thus to re-review a work which has before passed our ordeal, and from which we have already extracted several specimens. Requesting our readers, then, to turn back to that article, we shall furnish them with the means of comparison, by a few brief quotations from Mr. Adamson's volume, which will, however, be fully adequate to our purpose.

' DON PEDRO.

' Now Constable! that we're arriv'd within
The palace of Alvaro Gonsalves,
Reveal the secrets which oppress you so.
With sorrowing look you did intreat me,
While tears fast trickled down your aged cheeks,
To leave my sports upon the mountain's top,
And to this Quinta bear you company.
Complying with your wish, at your request
I left the chace and my diversions there.
Let my affection, the respect I feel
For your old age, spent in noble actions,
Which e'en will make posterity envious,
Excuse my impatience.—My earnest zeal
For the welfare of my country urges it:
Besides, it has ever been my nature,
To feel an int'rest in another's woes.
Consider it therefore as a duty,
Reveal to me the cause of this your grief,
Nor any longer leave me in suspense.'

An interview between Inez and the Infanta of Navarre furnishes these speeches:

' DONA IGNEZ.

' If you knew my birth,
You would not thus look on me with disdain,
Altho' I've kneel'd and humbly ask'd your aid.

' DONA BRANCA.

' That you are Dona Ignez de Castro,
Well I know. In me, behold a princess,
The Infanta of Navarre. If your face
Can boast of beauties I do not possess,
I can to pedigree appeal.

' DONA IGNEZ.

' Princess!
I see contempt and hate do guide your thoughts,
Unconscious of the blood from whence I spring.
I will not claim my rivalship in charms,
But own myself your equal as to birth.

' DONA BRANCA.

' How?

' DONA IGNEZ.

' Yes, 'tis true.—I will defend my rights.

' DONA BRANCA.

' O Ignez, stay thy flight, nor headstrong tempt
The sun's meridian height; lest, like that youth,

Whose

Whose daring mind soar'd up to heav'n and seiz'd
The fiery horses of the east, you fall
Reft of those blooming honors, which your heart
Had fondly fancied you e'en now possess'd.

' DONA IGNEZ.

' Princess! With all respect your birth demands,
Permit me to require you will not thus,
By false comparisons, my rank traduce.
I'm Dona Ignez de Castro. In Spain
E'en from my youth have I been fam'd for charms,
Of which till now I never made a boast;
From Pedro de Castro my birth I claim,
As did an only sister, who was queen
Of all the fair domains of proud Castile.
My brothers now enjoy the rank you bear;
And from a line of kings, whose mighty deeds
Illustrious shine, in right descent I come.
If you set forth your title of Navarre,
I stand here princess royal of Portugal,
The lawful consort of the prince. I now
Declare my marriage heretofore conceal'd.
To all the sarcasms that your hate may shower
On Ignez, as Don Pedro's wife I'll speak.'

Mr. Adamson occasionally violates even grammar, as in the line

' Which made me Pedro's wife, *be* my husband.'

In the next,

' All ties of consanguinity we *los'd*,'

we suppose that he meant to write *loos'd*, for *loosened*, but the supposition does not greatly benefit him.

Dr Sym...s. & G. 2.

LAW.

Art. 38. *Report of the Proceedings under a Writ of Enquiry of Damages*, in an Action in the Court of King's Bench, in which the Right Hon. Lord Boringdon was Plaintiff, and the Right Hon. Sir Arthur Paget, K.B. Defendant, executed before the Sheriff of Middlesex and a Special Jury, 19th July 1808. Taken in short Hand by Mr. Gurney. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale, jun.

Another melancholy case of seduction is hereadded to the many which the present corruption of morals has supplied. We cannot, however, but differ very essentially from the Counsel for the Defendant, whose talents were entirely directed to the *palliation* of the crime of his client, which it was not attempted to disprove; and it appears to us that some of Mr. Garrow's arguments assume a latitude and betray a sophistry, which we regret to see him employ, even bearing in mind their professed and temporary object. Mr. Garrow justly laments the state of fashionable manners, but he needed not to tell the Jury that he was not ' setting up for a preacher of morality,' while he was suggesting such pleas for the conduct of his client; and he offered an insult to that Jury, in saying to them that this conduct was such as ' any one of them would have held if placed in such unfortunate circumstances,'

stances,' which they effectually rebutted and wiped away by their verdict for the Plaintiff, with *ten thousand pounds* damages. G.2.

Art. 39. *Elements of Conveyancing*; to which are prefixed, an Essay on the Rise, Progress, and present State of that Science; and cursory Remarks on its Study and Practice. By Charles Barton, of the Inner Temple, Esq. 8vo. Six large Vols. Clarke and Son.

Mr. Barton states his design in this work to have been 'to collect, and reduce into a systematic form, all that is to be found in the Statutes, the Reports, and other legal Repertories, upon the various branches of the science of Conveyancing.' Though in pursuing this object, it is not to be denied that the writer has displayed more industry than judgment, it must on the other hand be admitted that he generally lays down correctly the doctrines of which he treats, and fairly quotes the authorities on which they rest: but the reader must not suppose that, in his citations, he does any thing more than abbreviate and transcribe; indeed, even the inaccuracies and obscurities of the original sources too frequently find their way into these pages; and Mr. Barton is therefore rather a compiler than an author, and his performance is rather a cento than a treatise. The ample matter, however, which his volumes contain, though it cannot boast the advantages of arrangement, will render them acceptable to the Student and the general Lawyer.

As an appendix, Mr. B. has subjoined cases which have been determined during the progress of the book through the press; and they are placed in alphabetical order, and in conformity to the divisions of the work.

A very copious and well constructed index adds greatly to the utility of this performance. Jo.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 40. *The Spanish Post Guide*, as published at Madrid, by Order of Government. Translated from the Original, in order to be prefixed to the new Edition of Mr. Semple's Journey in Spain. Illustrated by a Map, on which the Post-Roads are distinctly pointed out. 8vo. 2s. 6d. C. and R. Baldwin.

This manual is published separately, in order to accommodate those who are desirous of ascertaining distances in Spain; and, as many persons must now be in this predicament, we lose no time in announcing so useful a work, the value of which is considerably enchanced by the distinct *Spanish Map* affixed. Not only to the traveller will the information here given be acceptable, but it will enable the reader of Gazettes to calculate the number of leagues which an army has marched, or may have to march, from one principal town to another. Lists are given of the Posts from Madrid to the several Provinces; of the rates of Post-chaises, or Solitaries; of stages; and, at the end, a Table of the distance in leagues from Madrid to the chief towns, cities, and places in Spain, by the route of the mounted posts, arranged alphabetically.

How many individuals, at the present moment, will think a half-crown well expended in the purchase of this Spanish Guide, who, six months ago, would have been equally desirous of a travelling director through Brobdignag or Lilliput!

Mo-y. An.

Art. 41. *A short Account of the late Mr. Richard Porson, M. A.* Greek Professor, of Trinity College, Cambridge; with some few Particulars relative to his extraordinary Talents. By an Admirer of a Great Genius. 8vo. 2s. 6d. C. and R. Baldwin.

A slight but interesting view of the late profound Grecian, sketched with animation, and by the hand of a scholar; to whom, we think, we could assign a name, had he not apparently chosen to conceal it. —We speak thus allusively of the *typo*-graphical part of this pamphlet: as to its really *graphic* illustration,—the bust of the Professor, drawn from memory,—his friends may, by the exercise of much *faith and patience* of examination, discover faint traces of resemblance: but they will much more readily suppose it to be the faithful likeness of some unfortunate half-hanged sheep-stealer!

Was the motto in the title page intended for a *pun?*

——— Μηκέτι
Παΐτταινε ΠΟΡΣΙΟΝ. Pind. Ol. 1. v. 283. G. 2.

Art. 42. *The Stranger in England*; or Travels in Great Britain. Containing Remarks on the Politics, Laws, Manners, Customs, and distinguished Characters of that Country; and chiefly its Metropolis: with Criticisms on the Stage. The whole interspersed with a Variety of characteristic Anecdotes From the German of C. A. G. Gœde. 3 Vols. 12mo. 15s. Boards. Mathews and Leigh. 1807.

We have already reviewed a translation of Mr. Gœde's travels, executed by Mr. Horne, and bearing the title of "Memorials of Nature and of Art." (See our number for May last.) The original work, it seems, consists of 'five volumes, from which the present editor has extracted such parts as he conceived would be most interesting to an Englishman, who wishes to know the opinion of foreigners respecting his nation.' The principal difference between this selection and the former consists in the omission of a long and rather uninteresting, because to us unnecessary, description of our religious sects; and in the insertion of a very slight and superficial account of Mr. Gœde's journey to Bath and Bristol, Warwick and Birmingham, and thence across North Wales to Holyhead, which occupies nearly the whole of a third volume; the second having concluded with those criticisms on our theatres, which terminate the publication of Mr. Horne. The remarks made on the villas of noblemen and other subjects of observation on this journey, are not injudicious, but they are much the same as would occur to any Englishman, if they were not suggested to him by the local descriptions and *guides*, which are now so numerous. We cannot but reprobate a book-making manœuvre, employed towards the formation of this third volume; which, consisting of only 128 pages of letter press, is swelled to a decent size by xv of tables of contents, which had been prefixed to every chapter separately, and 44 of index.

The language of these volumes is open to much censure. *Unimpressing* is barely English; and *debutter* is an extremely aukward representative of the French phrase for a young actress making her first appearance, *débutante*. Proper names too are mis-spelt, as in the instance

instance of *Corrigeo*; and *Issland* is written instead of Iffland, the hero of the German theatre. Den.

Art. 43. *An Appeal to the Public, and a farewell Address to the Army*, by Brevet Major Hogan, late a Captain in the 32d Regiment of Infantry, in which he resigned his Commission, in consequence of the Treatment he experienced from the Duke of York, and the System that prevails in the Army respecting Promotions, &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Gorman.

Major Hogan states that he made frequent applications to the Duke of York for promotion, accompanied by the most satisfactory testimonials of service and character; and that he constantly received a *routine* answer that his name "was noted for promotion, and would be duly considered as favourable opportunities offered." Finding, however, that these opportunities did not occur in *his* case, though junior officers were more successful, he obtained a personal audience of his Royal Highness; in which he distinctly stated that other means than the regular course had been recommended to him for attaining his object, which might be fulfilled by a certain application of 600l., but that he disdained to owe a commission to "*low intrigue or petticoat influence.*" Subsequently to this interview, Major Hogan was apprized by his friends that he had undoudbtedly given unpardonable offence by this language, and must never expect to rise in his profession. He consequently sent in his resignation, and was allowed so sell such of his commissions as he had purchased; but, as it did not appear on the War office books that he had bought his Captain-Lieutenacy, 400l. were deducted for that commission from the gross amount.—Feeling very angry at this whole affair, he determined to publish a statement of it; and on the first day of the appearance of his advertisement, he says that *a Lady in a Barouche* left at his residence an anonymous letter, with an inclosure of four bank notes of 100l. each, stating that this sum was sent to him in liquidation of the deficit of which he complained, and promising him future protection and patronage if he withdrew his advertisement, and refrained from disclosing "*secrets which would hurt him with all the Royal Family.*" He, however, pursued his intention of publishing, and offers to return the notes to the person who will send for them and will point out their numbers.

Nothing strikes us as extraordinary in this narrative, except in the alleged facts respecting the six hundred and the four hundred pounds. With regard to the former, the writer says that he is ready to substantiate his allegation by the most irrefragable evidence; and as to the latter, he subjoins the attestation of four witnesses who were present when he received and opened the letter. It has been publicly stated, however, that, instead of remaining on the spot to bring forwards the evidence which he says he possesses, he has departed for America; and it having been suggested that the *letter* was a contrivance of his own, he has been required to publish the numbers, &c. of the Bank notes, which would afford a clue to the parties through whose hands they had passed. This, however, has not been done, and the pamphlet rests on its own evidence alone. Had

it

it not excited considerable attention, we should not, under these suspicious circumstances, have entered into this summary of its contents. G.2.

Art. 44. *A Short English Answer to a Long Irish Story*; or a Key to the Mystery of the Barouche and Bank Notes, *proving* Brevet-Major Hogan's Accusations against H.R.H. the Duke of York to be barefaced Calumnies. 8vo. 2s. Chapple.

We see nothing *proved* in this pamphlet: the sum and substance of which are an insinuation that Mr. Peter Finnerty was the author of Major Hogan's appeal, and that the affair of the Bank Notes was a contrivance of those two friends: with the suggestion to which we have above referred, that it is incumbent on the *ci-devant* Major to publish their numbers, &c. D.o

Art. 45. *A full and impartial Examination of Major Hogan's Appeal*, &c. containing a complete *Refutation* of its Misrepresentations and Calumnies. By one of the British Public. 8vo. 2s. Faulder, &c.

Intimations similar to those of the preceding *answerer* are here thrown out, but we perceive no *refutation*,—no disproving of alleged facts. D.o

Art. 46. *A Letter to Brevet-Major Hogan*, on his extraordinary *Appeal*, &c. with a Clue to discover the real Donor of the Bank Notes. By a Young Soldier. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale, jun.

Slight general disputation, and a repetition of the former suggestions concerning the Bank notes. D.o

Art. 47. *The Democratic Quartetto*: or Physic for the Fiends, &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Chapple.

Mr. Hogan is here associated with three other perons, whose names are well known in the annals of political warfare, and all four receive what the author no doubt considers as a *trimming*. Against the *Appeal* we have objections analogous to those of other answers, with the addition of insinuations against the Major's character and connections; and opportunities are taken to introduce other political matter, foreign to Mr. Hogan's affair. We still obtain nothing that we can enter in our notes as *evidence* for the jury of the public, against the Plaintiff's statement. D.o

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 48. Preached at the Anniversary of the Royal Humane Society, in St. Ann's Church, Westminster, April 12, 1807; and July 26, 1807, at the Church of All Saints, West Ham, by the Rev. Richard Yates, B.D. F.S.A., Chaplain to His Majesty's Royal Hospital, Chelsea, &c. 8vo. 1s. Rivington. &c.

We must regard this publication as adding to the number of valuable discourses which have appeared, in behalf of that compassionate and beneficial institution which it is intended immediately to recommend. It particularly relates the exertions which were successfully employed for the recovery of a poor man, drowned and apparently quite dead, by the Emperor of Russia, who is reported with much

sensibility to have exclaimed on the occasion—"Good God! this is the brightest day of my life!" He is said, in the note, to have honoured the Society by an acceptance of their Gold medal. Hi.

CORRESPONDENCE.

'To the MONTHLY REVIEWERS.

'GENTLEMEN,

'THERE are some remarks in your review of Mr. Hodgkin's *Calligraphia Græca* (No. for July last, p. 312.) which I trust you will, upon reconsideration, be disposed either to recall or to modify. You say that I have *invented* a new mode of forming the Greek characters: but I never claimed, or thought of claiming, any such honor: in the mode which I *adopted*, I only endeavoured to copy the best models that I could find. According to your quotation, I have had the vanity to suppose, that the letters thus *invented*, were *more truly Greek* than any others; as if a copy could be more authentic than the original. But in the passage preceding the words which you quote, I had been speaking of an easy character, proper for a running hand, which Mr. Hodgkin has since used in many parts of his work; and I then only said that the next alphabet was more elegant, and had more the true character of Greek *than this*. My object was to select such forms as harmonize best with each other, and were capable of being written with the greatest ease, and with the greatest uniformity; and I have deviated very little from some of the alphabets employed by Bodoni. Mr. Ashby has imitated a fair hand, written with a good pen; and in doing this, it was his duty to make the ascending strokes fine: but it does not therefore follow that any of us wish to recommend a letter founder to copy these forms without any deviation; and if we did, the thing would be impossible. Mr. Hodgkin's *Calligraphia* is solely intended for the assistance of those who wish to write Greek with elegance and with facility, and not to introduce any alteration in the forms of the printed Greek characters. Nor had the public a right to expect that the Poecilographia would exhibit a complete system of Greek Palæography: but the plate of specimens of different alphabets appears to me to be perfectly adequate to the purpose for which it was intended; and I am still of opinion that the copious list of connections and contractions, which the work contains, may afford a student great assistance in the perusal of antient manuscripts. I am, Gentlemen,

Your very obedient servant,

'Worthing, 20th Oct. 1808. THOMAS YOUNG.'

The words to which this gentleman refers are the following, which the reader is requested to compare with the Review: "*Majusculæ vix alio modo quam Romanæ scribuntur; quare has quidem prætereo; neque de tertii ordinis literis dicere opus est, ad eas enim proxime accedunt quæ hodie cursivæ seu Italicæ dicuntur, atque ad eas quibus quotidie in scribendo utimur, celeritati vulgaris usus accommodatæ; secunda autem series, quæ elegantioris formæ, magisque, ut ita dicam, Græcæ specimen exhibet, alio omnino modo quam quo vulgo scribitur elaboranda est.*"

After some directions, relating to innovations in the mechanical process of writing these characters, Dr. Y. proceeds; "*Secundum eadem*

'eadem principia, quorum fundamenta debeo utili libello Alexandri Serle de arte scribendi, omnes literarum nexus, accentus, notæque numerales confici possunt."

The *Poecilographia* is a very full list, probably the fullest yet published, of Greek contractions and connections; and it is executed with consummate elegance, and with much fidelity. Such being unquestionably its merits, we did not intend to deny that it might *afford a student great assistance in the perusal of antient MSS.* It was only said, and it must now be repeated, that any work in which contractions and connections, of all sorts, and of all ages, are huddled, without analysis, and without classification, into one alphabet,—however creditable it may be to the artists engaged in it,—can claim no merit as a literary production; and so far from *exhibiting any system, however incomplete, of Palæography*, it cannot teach, correctly and satisfactorily, the very rudiments of that science.

On the other points, which are less important, we have still the misfortune to differ in opinion from our correspondent; whom, however, we have deemed it right to allow to speak for himself.

Dob.

'*To the* MONTHLY REVIEWERS.

'GENTLEMEN, 'City Road, Nov. 2, 1808.

'FOR the impartial and yet favourable notice you have taken of my Portraiture of Methodism in your last Number, I desire to express my thankfulness. But I should feel an additional obligation if, through the medium of your widely circulated publication, I might be permitted to correct an error into which you, Gentlemen, and some others, have been led, relative to my present situation among the Methodists.

'I was a Methodist preacher upwards of nine years. I am no longer either a Methodist preacher or a member of their society. I voluntarily resigned my *Ticket* a few years ago, in consequence of a change in my religious sentiments; and though often solicited to re-join the Society, I have very seldom been within the walls of a Methodist meeting since I left the connection.

'I ought certainly, before this, to have made an explicit declaration of my removal from the Society of Methodists; but as my letters were addressed to a Lady, who knew at the time that I was no Methodist, and not dreaming, when I published the Letters, that any one of my readers would mistake me for a Methodist, I did not think it necessary to mention the fact of my change of sentiment in the Portraiture.

'I am, Gentlemen,

'Your most obedient and obliged humble Servant,

'J. NIGHTINGALE.'

We have received a letter signed J. G., dated Wilts, September 10, 1808, which we ought to have noticed before. This Correspondent refers to a remark which we made in our number for August last, p. 388. on Dr. Beddoes's proposal to apply leeches very freely to the stomach, in particular cases of fever; and he asks whether

we

we have 'really any ground in practice' for the opinion which we gave in opposition to this proposal. We answer by stating that we spoke with that confidence which arises from a thorough acquaintance, for some years, with the practice at one of the largest fever establishments in the kingdom: where we never saw leeches applied to the stomach of typhus patients "by relays of dozens;" nor do we believe that we ever shall, because we think that a strong *analogous experience* is against such practice. As far as we understand the state of the disease to which Dr. Beddoes refers, we should in such cases probably lay blisters to the stomach; an application which is often beneficial.

Bos.

'A Constant Reader' attaches, we think, too much importance to the error which he has detected, but we willingly rectify it. In transcribing from Mr. Fox's work, in our Review for September, p. 77. we made the historian speak of "the church party, *who*," &c. and in re-perusing our MS, this relative was marked in *Italics* as, inaccurate, without suspecting that it was a slip of our pen: but such is the fact; and *which* is the word properly inserted in the volume itself.

A note from Mr Pratt informs us that, in a *third* edition of "The Contrast," (see our former number, p. 210,) he has availed himself of our strictures, and has otherwise improved this popular poem. The line, to the false quantity of which we objected, is thus amended:

'When *Cepio's* impious arms in vain assailed;'

and the harsh sounding proper names are excluded from the passage which we extracted: but the line

'*Austria* renew'd her spirit still unbroke'

remains unamended, though it has a foot too much, unless *Austria* be pronounced *Austra*; and though *unbroke* is *ungrammatical*.

Mo-y.

Since the publication of our last Appendix, we have received a communication from the author of the *Eloge de Corneille*, stating that, in consequence of a remark made by us in our account of that production, it might be interesting to compare this *Eloge* with the Essay on the same subject to which the prize was adjuged by the National Institute; and therefore the writer had transcribed for our perusal certain passages from the successful discourse, which, he informs us, have been printed at London as favourable specimens of the work in question. We have read and contrasted the paragraphs so submitted to us; and although we observe many happy thoughts, some of which are very eloquently expressed, in the successful Essay, we are inclined to give a decided preference, on the whole of the passages compared, to the composition which we noticed in our last Appendix.

Meri.

Leominstriensis is just received.

☞ Rev. for October, p. 216. l. 12. from bott. for 'his' read *Bonaparte's*.

Errata, pp. 254, 288, 289, 305. 308.